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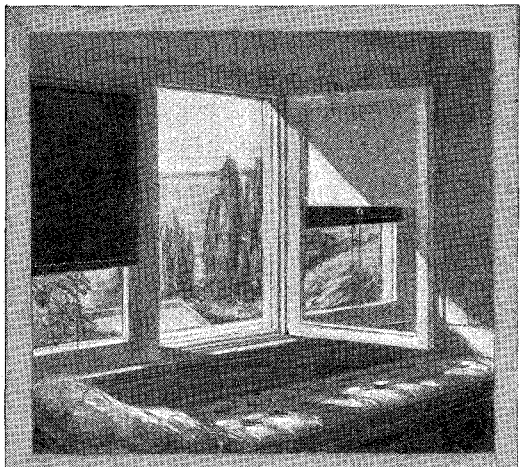

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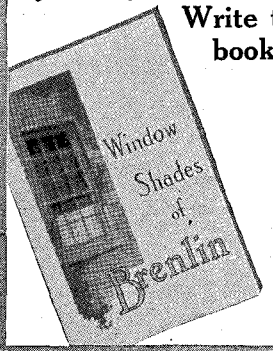

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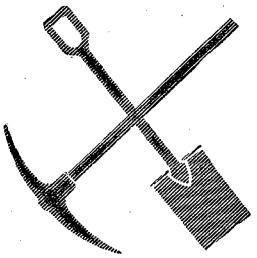

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The Outlook

MAY 13, 1911

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Contributing Editor

LONDON FOR ARBITRATION

The venerable Guildhall in London, in which have been heard so many men of the highest distinction and so many addresses of the first authority, has perhaps never seen a more significant meeting, nor one which will interest the future generations more deeply, than that recently held for the adoption of resolutions pledging the city of London to the support of a treaty of arbitration between Great Britain and the United States. The leaders of both parties were present, the Prime Minister, Mr. Asquith, and Mr. Balfour, ex-Premier; and the Archbishop of Canterbury, who has a rare gift of saying happy things at the right moment, declared that the speech of either could have been made by the other. The Union Jack and the Stars and Stripes were intertwined above the head of the Lord Mayor. The Prime Minister spoke with a ring of conviction which official addresses do not always convey. He declared that the seed which the President of the United States cast had fallen on ground already prepared to receive it; that a project which, even a few months ago, might have been regarded as the dream of idealists, had not only passed into the domain of practical statesmanship, "but has become the settled purpose of two great democracies," which now agree in the conviction that between Great Britain and the United States, "whatever the gravity of the issue and the magnitude of the interests involved, whatever the poignancy of the feelings it arouses, there will be a definite abandonment of war as a possible solution, and the substitution of argument for force, and the supersession by judicial methods of the old ordeal of battle." He asserted that there was no menace to the rest of the world in such a treaty between the two English-speaking peoples, but there was the hope that such a step would prove of immeasurable and incomparable significance in the onward progress of humanity. Mr. Balfour said that he could not imagine a greater blow to civilization than that, if such a treaty were made, either party should break it; but he insisted that, so far as he could understand opinion on both sides of the Atlantic, there was no ground for a pessimistic view of this possibility. He said that he was most optimistic regarding the prospects of the treaty; but he warned his hearers not to confuse the question of the morality of war and the methods of avoiding it with the question of reducing the burdens of armament. A treaty between English-speaking peoples would not lessen England's great responsibility in all parts of the world; but such an agreement would set an example to the world of the highest importance, and would not only make certain peace between the English peoples, but mark a significant effort in the progress of civilization. Among other speakers were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Westminster, the Chief Rabbi of the United Hebrew Congregations of the British Empire, and the minister of Regents Park Chapel, who spoke for the free churches. The Premier of New Zealand, who spoke for the colonies, received an enthusiastic reception; and the great audience felt that they had been present on a great historic occasion.

CRITICAL CONDITIONS IN MEXICO

Despite the fact that formal peace negotiations are going on at Juarez between a Commissioner representing President Diaz and the head of the insurrectionary movement, Señor

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Madero, Mexico's political condition was, if possible, more critical last week than before. Destruction and disorder continue in widely separated parts of the country to such an extent that the limited truce must be regarded as largely ineffective. Individual cases of looting and oppressive acts committed, it is alleged, by both Federals and insurrectos are reported so numerously as to indicate something approaching anarchy. In point of fact, the bodies of irregular forces under arms are in many instances not subject to Madero's orders; and although Madero himself has been recognized as the revolutionary leader by President Diaz in the credentials given to the latter's Commissioner, Judge Carbajal, there are other leaders who must be dealt with separately. The truce is in force along the American border, so that, for the present at least, the likelihood of any fighting which shall endanger Americans and American property on our side of the border has been removed. All accounts agree, however, that Diaz's Government is politically in a very bad condition, and that the President has allowed the hostile movements against his Government to become so formidable that only instant and serious concessions on his part will bring about peace and order. The reforms proposed by President Diaz a few weeks ago, and then outlined in The Outlook, are in the right direction, and if satisfactory guarantees can only be given that they will be actually carried out, it is probable that they will be accepted by the dissatisfied and insurgent element. It is reported that Madero will not insist upon an immediate resignation of President Diaz, but that he requires a promise at once that Diaz will retire at a definitely stated time. There seems to be no doubt that what may be called the military requirements of the insurrectionists—such as their right to retain arms, and perhaps to receive pensions when wounded in the fighting, will be arranged without difficulty. The larger questions, such as the land problem, the election of Governors of Provinces not eligible to re-election, and the method of appointment of officials generally, will doubtless need diplomatic treatment, and their settlement may take some time, although the pressure of events is so strong that time is a most important element in the negotiations for peace. Much surprise is felt at the comparative smallness of the regular army forces at the disposal of President Diaz. Mexico is an enormous country, and outbreaks occur constantly in far distant parts, so that the prospect of putting down the hostile movement by arms is not promising. The insurgents hold several towns, including Mazatlan, a port of some importance—unless the assertions of last week's despatches to this effect prove erroneous. They also control in large part much territory in Northern and Central Mexico, threaten railway communications, and even have a force within a comparatively few miles of the City of Mexico itself. Newspaper correspondents in the capital last week declared that a state of alarm existed there, and that the campfires of the insurgents could be seen from the city. Of course there is a possibility of outbreak in the City of Mexico, and many foreigners by the end of the week were leaving the place. All sorts of disquieting rumors—some of them quite contradictory—have been received; but the tone of the despatches at the end of last week was a little more favorable. Madero, who signs himself Provisional President, has made a public offer to withdraw from any supposed candidacy for the Presidency in case a fair and free new election is arranged, and provided also that General Diaz and Vice-President Corral shall take a similar position.

AN ANTI-MANCHU RISING

Last week an anti-Manchu plot against the throne of China became a revolution on a small scale. The Chinese throne is, Hibernically speaking, a Manchu throne, and has been so since 1643, when the warlike Manchus from Manchuria and the north, besought to defend China proper against its Tartar enemies, entered it as peaceful conquerors and a Manchu prince established himself at Peking, the capital, without serious opposition, beginning the present Ta Tsing, or "Great Pure," dynasty. The enforced adoption by the Chinese of the plaited queue at first produced friction between the races, but this gradually disappeared. A reminder of it,

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however, was noted last week at Canton, where the revolutionists were mostly queueless, thus indicating their hatred of any outward sign of Chinese vassalage. Though more opposed than are the Chinese to the inauguration of popular rights, the Manchus have ruled China with not inconsiderable success, their rule being naturally more effective in the north; indeed, the farther south one goes, the more evidence there always has been of anti-Manchu feeling. This opposition has centered at Canton, the capital of the province of Kwangtung and the great metropolis of the south. In 1895, for instance, the famous revolutionary Sun Yat Sen started to overthrow the dynasty and give China a constitution. But the principal result was the decapitation of the fifteen other ringleaders and the escape of Sun Yat Sen. In 1908 there were more beheadings at Canton in consequence of another rising brought about by revolutionists who, in order to recruit for their revolution, had joined the army and had also worked as cooks and coolies among the people. Army loyalty has always been the determining factor in mending or ending the Canton riots and risings, and it is upon the thirty thousand troops at that city that the hope of the dynasty depends. There has been much loss of life there, but the troops now seem to have the situation in hand. Americans have a special interest in the preservation of law and order in southernmost China, for we have many mission stations there. According to the latest information, the rebels have not molested the foreign missions.

THREE PROGRESSIVE STATES

That the people of any State can secure rights as against the influence of special interests, provided the people themselves make it clear that they are determined to do so, has been demonstrated by the action of several Legislatures this year. In particular, this has been shown by the Legislatures of three States heretofore notoriously dominated by powerful corporations. The action of these States is the more significant in that they represent geographical extremes and political diversity. Two of the States are on the Atlantic coast and one is on the Pacific coast; one is Democratic, the other two are Republican. There is absolutely nothing, however, in the record of general legislation on the part of any of these States to indicate whether that State is on the Atlantic or the Pacific coast, or whether it is Republican or Democratic. Railway influence in the Legislatures of California, New Hampshire, and New Jersey has been a byword. Besides that, New Jersey has been a nest of corporations. Many of the biggest corporations in the country have been hatched and fledged in New Jersey. Primarily, the progressive movement in each of these States has been a revolt against the participation of corporations in politics; but it has extended far beyond this. In all three States it has resulted in legislation rigorously controlling corporations that have heretofore been uncontrolled; but it has produced a body of legislation on behalf of political and industrial liberty and democracy that is not less important. Each of these States has adopted legislation for the control of public utilities, for the improvement of the implements of self-government, and for the amelioration of industrial conditions. In each of these three States this body of legislation has been secured under the leadership of a strong Executive. As with the Legislatures, so with the leaders. There is nothing in the programme or the course of action on the part of these three Governors to indicate which is the Republican and which is the Democrat; and there is little if anything to show which belongs to the East and which to the West. The meaninglessness of party names in these days in America is made clear by the fact that these three public men, who represent the two big antagonistic parties, have written in their acts their subscription to a common political faith.

CALIFORNIA

Of these three States California was the first to complete its legislative programme. Before the Legislature could put the control of all public utilities completely in the hands of an administrative body there was need of an amendment to the Constitution. As a consequence, the Legislature drafted and passed for submission to the people such

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an amendment. In deference to the feeling in the State for home rule, this amendment permits municipalities to retain, or after yielding it to regain, the regulation of public utilities within their own borders. Beyond that the amendment gives the State complete control. The Legislature, however, had the power to make control over railways effective; and it consequently gave to the Railroad Commission authority to regulate railway rates, including the power to prescribe an absolute rate. No previous Legislature would have given respectful hearing to such a measure. This Legislature passed it by a unanimous vote. Regarding political reforms the Legislature acted boldly. It instituted constitutional amendments providing for the Initiative, Referendum, and Recall. It should be said that California already has very largely applied the Recall to counties and municipalities. The Legislature also simplified the Direct Primary Law, adopted the Oregon plan for the direct election of United States Senators, and eliminated the party column from the ballot. It also took an important step in the direction of the Short Ballot. The Legislature failed, by falling a little short of the necessary two-thirds majority, to submit to the people an amendment which would leave no State officers elective except the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and State Comptroller, as recommended by Governor Johnson; but it did remove, by a simple act of legislation, as it had the power to do, the State Printer, Surveyor-General, and Clerk of the Supreme Court from the list of elective officials. The discussion of the Short Ballot was so educative that this wholesome reform is likely to be adopted by the next Legislature if it is equally progressive. In the field of industrial legislation California has this year made a great advance. It has adopted a Workmen's Compensation Act, which is optional after the fashion of the New Jersey Act which The Outlook has heretofore summarized. California has also gone further than any other State in limiting the hours of labor for women to eight hours in any one day, or forty-eight in any one week. Other enactments of this progressive Legislature reformed criminal procedure, provided for the conservation of natural resources, made possible the employment of convicts at useful trades, established local option throughout the State, and gave to counties a large measure of home rule. The Legislature furthermore submitted to the people the question of woman's suffrage. Not the least useful service that the Legislature rendered was negative. Without in any way committing the State to any policy that would admit Oriental immigration in large quantity, the Legislature resolutely suppressed bills which could have had no other effect than to stir up trouble in matters that are within Federal jurisdiction.

NEW HAMPSHIRE AND NEW JERSEY

While California on the far Western border was making this record in progressive legislation, New Hampshire at almost the other edge of the Union was making a fight along the same line. For years the Boston and Maine Railway has been so influential in New Hampshire politics that it has practically controlled all legislation affecting its own interests. The Progressive Republicans, under the leadership of Governor Bass, came into power with the determination to end this railway domination of the State. Behind the Governor was the lower house of the Legislature; but the Senate was obstructive. President Mellen of the railway announced that he wanted to withdraw the railway influence from politics. On the other hand, the Progressive Republicans let it be known that they would make it their business to see that the railway was fairly dealt with, so that it would have no excuse for being in politics. Governor Bass wanted to secure the co-operation of both Republicans and Democrats on the Railway Committee of the lower house, so as to take the question out of party politics. He succeeded. Great credit is due to Mr. Raymond Stevens, the floor leader of the Democrats in the House, for his courageous and persistent resistance to every effort to make the matter the subject of political play. Some of the agents of the railway did not follow Mr. Mellen's policy, but their actions were overruled by their chief. Governor Bass and his supporters in the

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lower house won a great victory. The result is a Public Utilities Act that is believed to be as strong as that of any State. New Hampshire has also rigorously revised its election laws, regulating campaign receipts and expenditures, and penalizing corruption. The New Hampshire Act providing for workmen's compensation adopted by this Legislature is of great importance. It is limited in operation to certain dangerous employments. The principal distinction of this Act is that it is not merely optional, as the New Jersey Act is, but doubly optional. If the employer refuses to accept the principle of automatic compensation, he opens himself to suits for damages and at the same time forfeits certain common-law defenses. On the other hand, if the employee refuses to accept the principle of automatic compensation and wishes to take his chance in a suit for damages, he must overcome certain common-law defenses. Like New Hampshire and California, New Jersey, under the leadership of Governor Wilson, has adopted the principle of the Public Utilities Commission, and has secured by this means very much firmer control of railways and other public service corporations than it ever had before. What New Jersey has accomplished for the purification of elections The Outlook has already told. New Jersey has also re-enforced its election law by a severe Corrupt Practices Act. It has, as The Outlook has already stated, adopted an optional Workmen's Compensation Act, and an eight-hour law for laborers and mechanics on public works. It has also adopted a law with the purpose of preventing the transmission of moral and mental defects by heredity. The work of these three States is selected for report, not because it is not paralleled in other States, but because it is typical of the progressive movement in this country, irrespective of party.

THE OHIO LEGISLATORS

Many of the members of Ohio's Legislature have been suspected of being bribe-takers. Two months ago an investigation was started, and William J. Burns, the detective expert, was employed to take charge. He found eight or ten members of the Senate and possibly thirty members of the House apparently engaged in corrupt practices. These figures may be changed when the Grand Jury investigates the facts; it is, indeed, to be hoped that there are not so many dishonest men in the Legislature. The "crooks" seem to be the reactionaries among both Republicans and Democrats. The Progressives in both parties have, it is believed, been clean-handed. The situation is interesting particularly because of the detective method used—the concealment of a diaphone under a couch in a room in a Columbus hotel. The diaphone contained a battery, and was sensitive enough to catch and transmit every sound, even a whisper. Wires, unseen, ran beneath the couch and under the door into the next room and connected with a telephone receiver which fitted on a person's head. The receiver was worn by a detective-stenographer; he took down every word uttered in the other room. In this way evidence was obtained concerning legislators with whom "fake" bribery negotiations had been entered upon, for they were offered large bribes for use either in passing or defeating some particular measure. The legislators would come to Room 317 to get their money, and every word said would be taken down in shorthand by the man in Room 316. Governor Harmon has urged the Grand Jury to make the most thorough investigation possible, and has declared that the Legislature must stay in session until the investigation reaches the last recesses of legislative corruption. A significant indication of the unrest now existing was seen last week when the Senate—which has been specially reactionary—passed two of Governor Harmon's favorite bills. One provides a central board of control for State institutions, and the other provides for direct nominations of United States Senators on the Oregon plan. The Governor also appeals for an obliteration of party lines. "We should stand together," says he, "and clear up this situation if it takes six months. Let the Republicans and Democrats form an alliance to do what the people of the State want done, and forget politics for the time." When honor and honesty are at stake, party lines should disappear.

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SAVE CITY HALL PARK

Last week the Stilwell Bill was railroaded through the New York Senate without hearing, debate, or opposition. This measure commands the Board of Estimate of New York City, at the behest of the Supreme Court justices, to pay for the erection of a County Court-House. Arrangements have already been made by the Board to attend to this business; the Board has full power to build a Court-House. No legislation is necessary. But, in the opinion of those who want the new Court-House to be placed in City Hall Park, something else is necessary, and hence the bill. It takes from the city government the power to determine the site and select the plans for the building, and confers this power on the justices of the Supreme Court. This is its sin of commission. Its sin of omission is that it does not contain a proviso declaring that no more park space shall be taken than is now occupied. During the past eight years various committees and commissions have considered desirable sites for a new Court-House, the erection of which is an urgent necessity. The judges would like to have the new Court-House as near as possible to the location of the present building. But the now well-defined policy of New York City is, we are glad to say, to place no more buildings in its parks. Perhaps the most precious park possession of the metropolis is the rather diminutive space known as City Hall Park, in which stands the City Hall, the most exquisite specimen of early architecture in this country. Unfortunately, however, at a time when men were less æsthetically developed than now, they allowed the City Hall to be flanked on the north and the south by two enormous and ugly buildings, the Court-House and the Post-Office. The park was practically ruined. But enough of it is left to cause exasperation at the proposals of those who would ruin it entirely. The Stilwell Bill represents such proposals. The Architectural League, the Fine Arts Federation, the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, and other efficient organizations, intend to fight the bill, and to acquaint the Assemblymen with the fact that there are other available sites in the immediate neighborhood of the present Court-House which the city would be warranted in acquiring, thus saving the park for the people.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

Interest in what is known as Scientific Management is becoming widespread. On April 28 the Civic Forum of New York City devoted a meeting to the subject. Perhaps the most emphatic opposition to this, which has been called "the greatest advance in industry since the introduction of labor-saving machinery," has come from some labor leaders. The ground of their opposition is that Scientific Management is a method of "speeding up," a device to lash the workers into supreme effort at the cost of vitality and health. For that reason the Civic Forum invited as speakers, not only two of the foremost exponents of Scientific Management—Mr. Frederick Winslow Taylor, of Philadelphia, who may be called its originator, and Mr. Frank B. Gilbreth, a contractor who has used it with marked success—but also a prominent labor leader, Mr. John Golden, President of the United Textile Workers of America. Mr. Golden's attitude as expressed at this meeting at Carnegie Hall should serve as a model not only to all labor leaders, but also to all who really want to know what Scientific Management is. It was the attitude of a man with open mind who believes that in all industrial advance the prime question is human welfare. He frankly acknowledged that with regard to any new industrial proposal the wage-worker is apt to be skeptical. He rehearsed briefly the effect of the introduction of labor-saving machinery in weaving, and he said that these effects on conditions of work had been such as to lead the workers to view with suspicion any new idea. When he declared that he did not believe the American people wanted to take the last ounce out of human effort, he received from his audience, which was composed of both employers and wage-earners, vigorous applause. It was in his concluding statement, however, that the significance of his speech lay. This was, in substance, that if Scientific Management means more production together with the conserving of the human element, union labor will be for it; but if it means further exploitation of men, women, and children, union labor will never

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cease to fight it. To this view The Outlook gives hearty assent. No increase in efficiency can atone for any kind of human enslavement. It is significant that Mr. Gilbreth, in following Mr. Golden, not only committed himself, but also committed Mr. Taylor, to complete agreement with this statement of Mr. Golden's. The fact is that those who know best what Scientific Management is find that its chief appeal lies in its promise to the worker of relief from fatigue and poverty. Several meetings have been devoted to this subject. Dartmouth College has just announced that through its school of business administration, the Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance, it will hold a conference on Scientific Management at Hanover, New Hampshire, from the 12th to the 14th of next October.

A GREAT SALE OF RARE BOOKS

Many people do not understand that to be a collector one must have something approaching genius, and that a great collection like that of the late Robert Hoe, whose library has just been sold in New York City, was that of a born collector. He had the instinct, the intelligence, the patience, and the means which enable a man to know what he wants, to follow it all over the world, and to buy it at any price. It ought to be said of Mr. Hoe that he also knew the inside of his books. Of course the value of a rare book, or a unique copy of a book, is a purely factitious thing. The price of the First Folio of Shakespeare, for instance, has no relation whatever to the contents of the book, but entirely to its rarity and the desire of people to possess it. The Gutenberg Bible, which, to use the slang of the market, broke the record at the Hoe sale, is an example of a book which brought the extreme price of $50,000 because of its great rarity. This Bible is the first book printed from movable type, and is a noble piece of the art of bookmaking made at a time when bookmaking was still an art in the hands of a very few trained men; and it is a joy to look at the Gutenberg Bible to-day and to find it in perfect preservation after four centuries. St. Augustine's famous work, "De Civitate Dei," a richly illuminated folio in gold printed on vellum in Venice in 1470, of which only eight copies on vellum exist, was sold for $2,700. The only known copy of "Helyas, Knight of the Swanne," a small quarto printed on vellum in London in 1512 by Wynkyn de Worde, who was the successor of Caxton, brought $21,000. This book, which Mr. Hoe secured from Mr. Quaritch, consists of only seventy-four leaves with forty-three woodcuts, and has been traced back to a famous book collector of the seventeenth century. From the literary point of view its interest lies in the fact that it was the first English version of the legend of Lohengrin. The manuscript of Irving's "Life of Oliver Goldsmith" was sold for $4,250. The first edition of Keats's "Endymion," accompanied by a letter to Fanny Browne, to whom the poet poured out his soul with such abandon, brought $1,000. "The Embargo," written by William Cullen Bryant in his fourteenth year, of which only four or five copies of the first editions survive, was sold for $3,350; while a copy of the Kilmarnock edition of Robert Burns's Poems brought $5,800, an amount which to the poet, in 1795, when the book was published, would have seemed an inexhaustible fortune. The book contains an autograph letter explaining his inability to repay money borrowed from a friend, and contains the phrase: "God forbid, sir, that anything should ever distress you as much as writing this card has done me." One of the most famous books in Mr. Hoe's collection was the only known perfect copy of Caxton's "Morte d'Arthur," which brought $42,800, taking in price next place after the Gutenberg Bible. One of the most beautiful books in the collection was a manuscript prayer book made at the end of the fifteenth century by a Flemish artist, which brought $11,650. Altogether this sale of books and manuscripts brought not far from a million dollars. Mr. Hoe's collection in interest and variety ranked among the first private collections in the world.

UNWHOLESOME SWEETNESS

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dinary sugar. Saccharin is a product of coal tar, and, strangely enough, President Remsen, of the Johns Hopkins University, the head of a board of experts which has just declared saccharin unwholesome, is the original discoverer of saccharin, although he was assisted in the discovery by Dr. Fahlberg. It will be remembered that President Remsen appointed a purely scientific and expert commission, often called the Referee Board, to which the Secretary of Agriculture might, under certain circumstances, refer purely technical questions. It was this Board which gave its opinion more than a year ago that the use of benzoate of soda in food products in reasonable quantities was not dangerous to human health—an opinion which was disappointing to Dr. Wiley and to many pure-food experts who very urgently desired that the use of benzoate in foods should be forbidden altogether. It was by this Referee Board of consulting scientific experts that the investigation into saccharin was conducted. They reported that the continued use of this product "for a long time in quantities over three-tenths of a gram a day is liable to impair digestion." They also find that its use as a substitute or addition to cane sugar or other similar sugar reduces the food value of the sweetened product. Now, the Pure Food Law declares that articles of food are adulterated if they contain *added* poisonous or other *added* deleterious ingredients which might make them injurious to health. It is within the power of the Pure Food Board, consisting of the Secretaries of the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, and the Treasury, to forbid absolutely the use of articles adulterated under this definition of the Act. Accordingly, the Secretary of Agriculture has issued a notice that after July 1 next articles containing saccharin shipped in inter-State foreign commerce or manufactured in the District of Columbia or the Territories will be regarded as adulterated, and prosecution will be instituted against the offending persons. It is said that at present there are at least thirty classes of food in which saccharin is substituted for sugar, such as sweet pickles, jellies, jams, certain kinds of canned goods, and certain beverages. It is an indication of the high regard with which our scientific experts are held in this country that no one is surprised that Dr. Remsen should pronounce against a chemical production in the discovery of which he was so greatly interested, and it may be added that in the converse case of the benzoate of soda decision no one whose judgment was worth considering, however disappointed by the conclusion of the Referee Board, doubted that this conclusion was based solely on scientific investigation and proof as found by the investigators.

SIGHT TO THE BLIND

Few appeals have been more admirably planned to awaken interest and the desire for fuller knowledge than the Blind Workers' Exhibition, which recently attracted crowds of people to the Metropolitan Opera-House in New York City. Miss Winifred Holt's tireless work was evident in the framing of this appeal, as in her many efforts to aid the blind. What one saw at the Exhibition was an entirely new attitude towards the blind, and an extraordinary achievement by the blind as the result of that attitude. It was into a wonder-world of mechanical facility, manual skill, and variety of intellectual interests that the visitor was introduced. The Exhibition was a workshop in which nearly forty trades, conducted by blind men and women, were presented. There before the eye was the work of blind carpenters, broom-makers, seamstresses, cooks, weavers, stenographers, and wireless operators working at their apparatus. It was indeed a marvelous revelation of what can be done by the education of the brain to take the place of the eyes. At the public exercises President Taft was seated in a chair made by a blind upholsterer; there was an organ prelude by a blind organist, and a tenor solo by a blind singer. Mr. Choate in his address emphasized the fact that the blind wanted work, not asylums. He recalled Henry Fawcett, afterwards Postmaster-General of England, who, on the hunting field where by an accident he lost his sight, said, when he returned to consciousness: "This accident shall make no difference in my career. My activities shall be conducted along the same line and with the same vigor as they have always been." This is the keynote of the

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modern treatment of the blind, or rather of the discipline through which the blind find their way into freedom. There are over eighty-five thousand blind people in the United States; and it is the purpose of the Association, of which Miss Holt is at the head, to set them free by teaching them all the trades and occupations, to fill their lives with interest, and to open the doors of happiness and independence to them. And when one remembers Senator Gore and that wonderful woman Miss Keller, the blind photographers, the blind physicians, and even the blind surgeons, the claims of this education must be given a foremost place. This is not alms-giving. It is simply giving the blind a chance to do their work in life.

THE SUCCESSFUL COUNTRY CHURCH

"Do you know of any conspicuously successful country churches in the United States?" This is the first question in an inquiry which is being made by Drew Theological Seminary. The Outlook agrees with Mr. Wells, the Research Secretary, who is conducting this inquiry, that there must be hundreds of such successful country churches, and we are glad to help the Seminary learn where they are. "If you are the pastor of an aggressive country, that is, of a rural village or small town, church," continues this inquiry, "tell us what you and your church are doing. What community problems have you faced and solved? How was it done? If any pastor is too modest to tell what he has done, tell what your church has done. We want direct evidence that many country churches are very much alive. We want to help the weaker churches to strength." It is a wise caution that has prompted the inquirer to add, "No calls to city pulpits shall result from replies to this request." We venture to add that replies will be welcomed not merely from ministers, but also from laymen who know the facts such as are desired. There may be difference of opinion as to what constitutes a "successful" country church. Undoubtedly the replies elicited will be illuminating on that question. The Rev. George Frederick Wells, B.S., BD., Room 512, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York, is the one to whom answers should be sent.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The Outlook has already commented upon the recent decision of the New York Court of Appeals declaring the New York law to provide for workmen's compensation unconstitutional. The decision is that the proposed law is in conflict with the Constitution of the United States. It is a lamentable fact that we have no way of bringing this question before the Supreme Court of the Nation, so that in New York State we are now obliged to act upon the theory that the Constitution of the United States is in one very important aspect an instrument of reaction and oppression which puts the most vital and elementary human rights below purely technical and conventional property rights. We have to acquiesce in this theory, not because the highest court in the Nation has so decided, but because one of the forty-six State courts has decided that if the highest National court could decide, it would decide in this way. Inasmuch as the Supreme Court of the Nation has on innumerable occasions reversed decisions by State courts, and inasmuch as a number of State courts—very recently a State court of Iowa, for instance—have proceeded on principles seemingly diametrically opposed to those announced by the New York Court of Appeals in this case, and inasmuch as the Supreme Court itself has on certain occasions taken a position seemingly the direct reverse of that which the New York Court has just taken, it is not merely the right but the duty of every friend of genuine justice and progress to protest against the decision in question.

When the Supreme Court of Connecticut, through Chief Justice Baldwin, now Governor of that State, rendered a decision akin to that rendered by the Court of Appeals on the same general subject, but even more extreme, this decision was circulated by the great railway corporations very widely before the Legislatures and Courts in other States in order to prevent or nullify legislation designed to secure compensation to workingmen. Exactly similar action is now being taken in connection with this decision of the New York Court of Appeals. For instance, I hold before me a pamphlet sub-

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mitted to the Legislature of the State of Minnesota on behalf of the proposed Workmen's Compensation Act in that State. This pamphlet, which is submitted by the Commissioner of Labor of the State of Minnesota, calls attention to the fact that documents quoting the decision of the New York Court of Appeals, intended to frighten the Legislature of Minnesota into non-action, have been circulated before it. The report of the Commissioner of Labor takes the view very strongly that the New York decision is not only in flat contradiction of decisions of the Minnesota Court, but also in flat contradiction of decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States; and it certainly seems as if the Commissioner made out his case.

The Court of Appeals in this decision fully admits the inequity and injustice wrought by the principles which it proceeds to uphold. Its contention is that the hands of the Legislatures, the hands of the people, are tied by the Constitution of the United States, and that we cannot get justice for workingmen or secure them against the most cruel wrong because the Federal Constitution and the State Constitution of New York, in the narrowest and most technical spirit, guarantee all persons against deprivation of liberty or property without due process of law. The New York Court then says:

> We shall not stop to dwell at length upon definitions of "life," "liberty," and "due process of law." They are simple and comprehensive in themselves, and have been so often judicially defined that there can be no misunderstanding as to their meaning. "Process of law" in its broad sense means law in its regular course of administration through courts of justice, and that is but another way of saying that every man's right to life, liberty, and property is to be disposed of in accordance with those ancient and fundamental principles which were in existence when our Constitutions were adopted.

The Commissioner of Labor for Minnesota, commenting on this, says, and I believe with entire justice, that the assumption of the New York Court is clearly erroneous when it says that in order to be "due" the "process" must be the same now as when the Constitutions were made. He points out that either the New York Court is wrong in this or else the Supreme Court of the United States is wrong, and he quotes as follows from the decisions of the Supreme Court. The first quotation is from one of Mr. Justice Moody's greatest opinions—and all men interested in wise social progress are called upon every day to lament the fact that Mr. Justice Moody's service on the Supreme Court was so brief:

> In Twining vs. State of New Jersey, 211 U. S. 78, where it was claimed that the practice of our ancestors would have to be used in order to make due process of law, the Court said: "It does not follow, however, that a procedure settled in English law at the time of the emigration, and brought to this country and practiced by our ancestors, is an essential element of due process of law. If that were so, the procedure of the first half of the seventeenth century would be fastened upon the American jurisprudence like a strait-jacket, only to be unloosed by constitutional amendment. 'That,' said Mr. Justice Matthews, in the same case, p. 529, 'would be to deny every quality of the law but its age, and to render it incapable of progress or improvement.'"
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> "It is no longer open to contention that the due process (of law) clause of the 14th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States does not control mere forms of procedure in State courts, or regulate practice therein." (Twining vs. New Jersey, 211 U. S. 78.)
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> Respecting the power to meet the progress of the day between employers and employees in the case of Holden vs. Hardy, 169 U. S. 365 (L. ed. 780), the Supreme Court said: "Of course, it is impossible to forecast the character or extent of these changes, but in view of the fact that, from the day Magna Charta was signed to the present moment, amendments to the structure of the law have been made with increasing frequency, it is impossible to suppose that they will not continue, and the law be forced to adapt itself to new conditions of society, and, particularly, to new relations between employers and employees, as they arise."

The Commissioner also quotes from various decisions of the Minnesota Court, one of which reads as follows:

> It cannot be necessary, at this day, in view of the numerous decisions of the State and Federal courts, to enter into any elaborate discussion to show that the Legislature may exercise such powers in behalf of the State. As respects the right or liberty of the citizen to engage in business and conduct industrial pursuits, these privileges are to be enjoyed in subordination to the general public welfare, and all reasonable regulations for the preservation and promotion thereof. "All property," says the Court in Com. vs. Alger, 7 Cush. 53, 85, "is held subject to the general regulations which are necessary to the common good and general welfare. Rights of property, like all other social and conven-

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tional rights, are subject to such reasonable limitations in their enjoyment as shall prevent them from being injurious, and to such reasonable restraints and regulations, established by law, as the Legislature, under the governing and controlling power vested in them by the Constitution, may think necessary and expedient." (Thorpe vs. Rutland & B. R. Co., 27 Vt. 140; [62 Am. Dec. 625.]) "The reasonable limits of the exercise of such power it is not easy to define." (Butler vs. Chambers, 63 Minn., 69, 71.)

And he closes with a quotation from a decision of the Wisconsin Supreme Court as follows:

Principles which were first laid down in the days of the small shop, few employees, and simple machinery could hardly be expected to apply with justice to the industrial conditions which now surround us. In those earlier days the laborer ordinarily knew his fellow-workmen, worked with simple machinery, and ran comparatively small risk of injury. The genius of our present remarkable industrial development requires that he carry on his patient toil in company with veritable armies of fellow-men, many of whom he can neither see nor know; it surrounds him with mighty and complicated machinery driven by forces beyond his control, whose relentless strength rivals that of the thunderbolt itself, and it requires him to labor day by day with faculties at highest tension in places where death lurks in ambush at his elbow, awaiting only a moment's inadvertence before it strikes.

The faithful laborer is worthy of his hire in these latter days as never before, but is he not entitled to more, and are not those dependent upon his labors entitled to more? When he has yielded up life, or limb, or health in the service of that marvelous industrialism which is our boast, shall not the great public for whom he wrought be charged with the duty of securing from want the laborer himself, if he survive, as well as his helpless and dependent ones? Shall these latter alone pay the fearful price of the luxuries and comforts which modern machinery brings within the reach of all?

These are burning and difficult questions with which the courts cannot deal, because their duty is to administer the law as it is, not to change it; but they are well within the province of the legislative arm of the Government. Happily the Legislature has seen the need, and now has these questions under serious consideration. If it shall solve them justly and equitably within constitutional lines, or even make a substantial advance in the direction of such a solution, it will be entitled to the gratitude of all citizens. Confidently, I can say that none will welcome such a solution more heartily than the judges of the court. (Driscoll vs. Allis-Chalmers Co., 129 N. W. 401, p. 408.)

In commenting upon the New York decision, the Commissioner says with entire justice that it is a matter of grave regret to the progress of the race that this question, involving, as it does, the biggest legislative subject of the day, a subject concerned with a waste of human life and human injury greater than that caused by the Civil War itself, should be permitted to go, not only to decision, but to wrong decision, without deep consideration. There is hardly a live subject in the realm of American jurisprudence which could not be decided either way—that is, against justice or for justice—with no more violation of legal precedents or exclusion of, on the one hand antiquated and useless, or on the other hand progressive and useful, legal principles, than in the case thus decided by the Court of Appeals of the State of New York; and I heartily sympathize with the earnest desire expressed by the laboring men, East and West, and given expression to in this report of the Commissioner of Labor of Minnesota, when it says that it is necessary that Western Legislatures and Western courts shall act on this subject at once in order to prevent the grave harm (or, as the report says, ruin) which would follow from leaving uncorrected such decisions as that of the New York Court of Appeals in the case before us, and as that of the Connecticut Court to which I have already referred.

I have received from one of the most eminent jurists, and one of the most genuinely conservative—and therefore genuinely progressive—men in the United States, a comment on this New York decision which puts the case so admirably that I quote it almost in full:

It is a remarkable example of special pleading—another illustration that in many American courts property is more sacred than life. The point in the decision that "due process" means the procedure which was enforced when the Federal Constitution was adopted, has been repudiated again and again by the Supreme Court of the United States. The decision is individualistic. It excludes all public considerations. It sees in the enforced payment simply the taking of the money of the defendant and giving it to the plaintiff. The law could have been sustained as a proper exercise of the police power upon either of two grounds: (1) Society has the right to require any business which directly produces orphans, widows, and cripples to provide for their support. (2) The most effective method of compelling

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dangerous employments to safeguard their employees is to make them financially responsible for injuries. In Germany, within five years after an absolute liability was imposed, the number of accidents was reduced sixty-two per cent. The court spends half of the opinion deploring the injustice of the existing law of master and servant. Who created that law? The American courts. It is wholly of their making. For seventy-five years, while the whole industrial world has been changed, the courts have developed our present law without any heed to the change. All attempt to ameliorate that law has come from the Legislature, and, as a rule, the courts have given such legislation the narrowest possible effect. If one wants an argument to prove that in American courts property has been more sacred than life, he needs only to point to the existing deplorable law of master and servant. They made that law. They have modified it from time to time, and always in the interest of the master.

The New York Court, admitting that the existing law is cruelly unjust, still says that the remedy which all the rest of the civilized world has found to be best is unavailable to the American people without an amendment of the Constitution. That is a fair example of the uses which have been made of American constitutions. I have made a careful study of constitutional decisions since 1890, in the courts of New York, Illinois, and California. As a rule, laws which they have declared unconstitutional were adopted to correct admitted industrial or social evils—such evils as every other civilized country in the world has been correcting by legislation. They dealt with such subjects as sweat-shops, hours of labor for women, ages at which children could be employed, conditions of mines, the requirement that workmen should be paid in cash or its equivalent, etc., etc. This study raises the question: Are the American people less free than other civilized people? Our constitutions were intended to protect us against tyranny, and they are now most frequently used to protect those who oppress women and children and laborers. When society attempts to redress its wrongs, it is told that its measures are unconstitutional. The battle of society is not with wrong, but with the constitution. In our legislatures the debate is not about the wisdom of measures, but their constitutionality. Laws are often obscure and indirect, in order to "get round" the constitution. Every enemy of the common good takes his stand on the constitution—and is safe. In my judgment, this is an utter perversion of constitutions. It is not the first time that institutions which were devised to protect society have been seized upon by a class and made a fearful engine of oppression. It will be noted that these recent uses of constitutions do not proceed from any specific language in those instruments. All the decisions are based upon such general terms as "liberty" and "property," and the inhibition is found, not in the language of the constitution, but in the speculative definitions which the courts have made of these general terms. Looked at in a large way, the three terms of American constitutions, "life," "liberty," and "property," embrace every concern of government; and if they are to be given a speculative interpretation, every act of the State can be brought under review by the courts. These words have been familiar in English and American constitutional law for centuries. Down to 1875, "liberty" meant freedom from imprisonment, and "property" meant tangible property and its use. Since 1875 the doctrine has been built up by American courts that "liberty" embraces every activity of life, and "property" every business right of man. From these new definitions has sprung our new constitutional law, under which constitutions that were intended to protect society against tyranny have become instruments to defeat every effort of society to redress admitted wrongs. Either American courts will make a different use of constitutions, or constitutions will become so odious that they will be thrown out of the back window. That will be a serious misfortune to the United States. We need the steadying power of written constitutions. But we will not submit to being perpetually frustrated in the accomplishment of those industrial and social reforms which every other free people in the world is free to accomplish.

I very earnestly call the attention of the representatives of the great capitalists, and of all the big men of the propertied classes, to the final words of this statement, and I also very earnestly call it to the attention of those who believe that the American people will permanently submit to having a small body of public servants rob them of the right of self-government, and above all of the right to move forward along the path already trod by every other great industrial nation in the direction of securing a more just treatment for wage-workers. It ought not to be necessary, but I suppose it is necessary, for me to reiterate what I have so often said: that I hold the judiciary of the Nation in very high regard; that I think that on the average the judge is a better public servant than the average executive or legislative officer. I hold all good public servants in high esteem; and I put the wise and upright judge on an even higher level than I put the wise and upright executive or legislator. But ours is a democracy, and we the people have the right to rule when we have thought out our problems and have come to a definite decision. The proper governmental

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system for a democracy is one under which the public servant is given full power to achieve results, and is then held rigidly responsible for his exercise of that power. I wish the judge to be given full power, power of the amplest kind, so that he may grapple with every issue that comes before him. I do not wish, for instance, to see the power of the judge in contempt cases so abridged as to render it impossible for judges to do what so many of them did in 1893, when in not a few States the fearless and wise action of the judges, while most of the executive and legislative officers had yielded to panic, was the chief factor in preventing the advent of chaos. I wish to see the judge given all power and treated with all respect; but I also wish to see him held accountable by the people. I wish to see the people exercise their power with moderation, and I wish to see the conditions such that it shall be necessary for them to think coolly, and make it evident that they have come to a well-settled conclusion before they can act against a judge. But they must have the power to act. And not only should they exercise this power in the case of any judge who shows moral delinquency on the bench, but they should also exercise it whenever they have been forced to come to the conclusion that any judge, no matter how upright and well-intentioned, is fundamentally out of sympathy with a righteous popular movement, so that his presence on the bench has become a bar to orderly progress for the right. I fail to see how any thoughtful man can read what I have above quoted and not see that this decision of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York is a case, not really of interpretation of the law, but of the enactment of judge-made law in defiance of legislative enactment, and in defiance of the interpretation of other legislative enactments by the highest courts of this country. Whatever the form, the substance of the action of the Court of Appeals is, not the interpretation of law, but the making of law, and the making of it in a way oppressive, well-nigh ruinous to the interests of the wage-workers, and indeed to society as a whole. It is out of the question that the courts should be permitted permanently to shackle our hands as they would shackle them by such decisions as this, as the decision by the same Court many years ago in the tenement-house cigar factory cases, and the decision in the bakeshop cases shackled them. Such decisions are profoundly anti-social, are against the interests of humanity, and tell for the degradation of a very large portion of our community; and, above all, they seek to establish as an immutable principle the doctrine that the rights of property are supreme over the rights of humanity, and that this free people, this American people, is not only forbidden to better the conditions of mankind, but cannot even strive to do the elementary justice that, among even the monarchies of the Old World, has already been done by other great industrial nations.

It is to our interests as a people that the courts should have the fullest power necessary to make them efficient. Where they do not abuse this power it is to our interest to leave them undisturbed. I would far rather see them thus left undisturbed; and it is for this very reason that I have again and again urged wide public comment upon their decisions, not merely as a right, but as a duty, and especially in the interests of the courts themselves. But perseverance in rendering decisions such as those alluded to above, such decisions as this of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York, would, in the end, render it absolutely necessary for the American people, at whatever cost, to insist upon having a more direct control over the courts. The only Socialist member in Congress recently advocated the abolition of all power on the part of the judges over legislation. There is no danger of the adoption of such a plan unless the courts by a long series of actions render it evident that, great though the evils of the proposed plan would be, the people must face them rather than submit to the evils of the existing system; and unfortunately the experience of all history teaches us that when people become goaded to action by a long course of abuses they are apt to reject the leadership of moderate reformers, and to go to violent extremes, in the effort to provide a remedy. I feel that it would be a very great misfortune for us as a people to have to abandon our system of written

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constitutions, and of legislation under them subject to judicial interpretation. But decisions such as this of the Court of Appeals, involving such far-reaching injustice and wrong (and implying in our Government such contemptible futility from the standpoint of remedying wrong and injustice), if unchecked and uncorrected, will go a long way toward convincing people that, at whatever cost, the entire system must be changed. The so-called conservatives who work for and applaud such decisions, and deprecate criticism of them, are doing all in their power to make it necessary for the Nation as a whole in these matters to go to a far more radical extreme than the most radical State has as yet even proposed to go.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

EXTREMES MEET

The editor who cannot understand the difference between the proposition which he attributes to Mr. Victor Berger, that the United States Constitution as it stands "has thwarted, if not actually killed, all legislation," and the proposition which he attributes to Mr. Roosevelt, that under that Constitution as it stands "we must be resolutely prepared to use the power of Government to any extent, even though it be necessary to tread paths which are yet untrod," is the subject of our sincere compassion. So are those who trust to such editorials for guidance.

When Chief Justice Marshall interpreted the Constitution as giving power to the courts to pass on the constitutionality of all laws, we began to tread a path before untrod. When Abraham Lincoln called for volunteers to prevent States from seceding from the Union, we began to tread a path before untrod. When Congress, overruling the interpretation put on the Constitution by Jefferson and Polk, passed the first appropriation for National improvements, we began to tread paths before untrod. When it passed the Act creating a Railway Commission and bringing the inter-State railways under Federal control, we began to tread paths before untrod. There has not been a decade in American history since the Constitution was adopted during which the Nation has not, following the lead of its great statesmen, entered under that Constitution upon paths before untrod.

The radical Victor Berger and the reactionary New York "World" agree in their interpretation of the Constitution. They both regard it as a series of cast-iron rules which forbid the Nation to enter upon paths before untrod; that is, forbid all progress. Mr. Berger desires to preserve progress and destroy the Constitution; the New York "World" wishes to preserve the Constitution and destroy all progress. But those who have studied the Constitution and the history of the Convention which framed it, and the history of its judicial interpretation and of National development under it, know that it is not a set of cast-iron rules. It is a statesmen's definition of great principles laid down in general terms for the very purpose of enabling the Nation to enter, in accordance with those principles, on paths before untrod.

The reactionary and the Socialist agree in their interpretation of the Constitution. Extremes meet. The Outlook repudiates them both.

PROTECT THE CHILDREN

In a self-governing community the penalty of misgovernment usually falls upon those who are responsible for it—the people. Such a penalty is one of the means by which self-government becomes a force for popular training. In a democracy, therefore, the ills that come from bad government carry with them usually incidental benefit. There is, however, one field in which this is not true—the field of public education. When misgovernment touches the schools, it is not the people responsible for that misgovernment who chiefly suffer; it is the children.

If, through misgovernment, the highways fall into disrepair, the people can take their choice: they can enjoy their indolence and suffer inconvenience in going to and fro, or, they can go to the trouble of making a change in their governmental agents and enjoy the advantage of efficient transit. If special interests secure without compensation public property, the people can let the property go

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and suffer the consequences, or they can, at some inconvenience, force restitution. But if the schools deteriorate, the children are helpless. In the first place, they do not know that they are being defrauded; and, in the second place, even if they were capable of knowing, they would have no recourse. If the people allow corruption in affairs that concern their own interests, there is some ground for justification for the citizen who, after a reasonable effort to help eradicate it, abandons his effort on the ground that the people seem to be willing to swallow the concoction; but there is no justification for indifference when corruption, or greed, or selfishness, or stupid ignorance, brings or threatens evil to the school. The children cannot refuse the dose that is offered them.

In the city of Greater New York the children attending the public schools number six hundred and fifty thousand. These school-children in this one city could populate the State of Rhode Island slightly more densely than that State's present population; if set apart into a separate municipality, they would form a city of children twice the size of Cleveland, Ohio, and nearly as large as the city of St. Louis. The welfare of these children is not in their own keeping. It is not in the keeping of their parents. It is in the keeping partly of the city of New York and partly of the State of New York. In large degree their welfare depends upon the kind of schools which they attend. If these schools are made stakes in a game played by politicians, the wrong will be done, not to the people who let the schools be played for, but to over half a million children. More than that, it will be done not merely to the children of to-day, but to millions of children that are to be.

There is a new charter under consideration for the city of New York. In that charter there are many things that concern very closely the people of that city. In the measure that is offered, it is proposed, for example, that the official who acts as the auditor of the city's expenditures shall be the appointee of the Mayor. The people should consider very carefully whether they want the city administration to choose for itself who shall check its expenditures. If, however, they let a matter like this go by the board, they will suffer whatever evil consequences may follow. When, however, this charter proposes a radical revolution in the matter of school administration, it raises a question which is the concern of every citizen in the country. This charter is understood to have the approval of Mayor Gaynor. We have no hesitation in saying that no other act of Mayor Gaynor will have so much to do with his future reputation. If the Gaynor Charter should turn the schools of the children of Greater New York for years to come over to the hands of men who would use them for their own ends, as educational experts say it will, no act of Mayor Gaynor's administration could rescue his name from the list of those whom the American people execrate.

This measure offered as a new charter for the city abolishes the present Board of Education, and for it substitutes another board of different character and with different powers. The present Board is a comparatively large body of forty-six members appointed by the Mayor and serving without pay. Besides this Board, there is a Board of Superintendents. The division of duty between the Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents is clear. The Board of Education deals with the business administration of the schools; the Board of Superintendents deals with educational questions. In addition to the Board of Education for the city at large, there are local boards, each of which supervises the schools of a limited district. To act with each one of these forty-six local boards there is assigned a member of the Board of Education. In this way the general Board keeps its connection with every portion of the city.

In place of this arrangement, the proposed charter provides a radically different system. If this should be adopted, the Board of Education would be abolished, and the powers over educational questions would be taken from the superintendents. A new board would be erected, consisting of seven men who would not serve gratuitously, but would be paid. To this small body would be intrusted both administrative and educational functions. In other words, a small group of men, selected because they could afford to give all their time for the salaries offered,

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would have power, not only to dictate educational policies to the trained professional staff of the school, but also to enforce their demands by exercising the right to discharge and engage all teachers.

The evils of this proposed plan, which has Mayor Gaynor's approval, are obvious:

1. The substitution of a paid board for a voluntary board is contrary both to reason and to experience. The man who gives his time and effort for an educational cause renders a service that cannot be had for hire. This truth, which is self-evident, has been illustrated in instances without number. The great administrative boards of our colleges and universities are not paid bodies. No one for a moment would propose that they should be. The men who have served on the unpaid Boards of Education in the cities of America have in innumerable instances included men whose ability and standing are of the highest, and who would not for a moment entertain the proposition of abandoning their regular occupation in order to accept the uncertain position of a paid city official at a very moderate salary. None of the present members of the New York City Board of Education whose services would warrant their appointment to a new board would be at all likely to be willing to serve the city exclusively for pay.

2. The transfer of power to choose teachers and plan courses of study from officials whose interests are solely educational to a body whose interests are political and financial is utterly vicious. Wherever the Board of Trustees, whose business it is to manage property, takes to itself the privilege of appointing teachers and determining educational questions, the result is invariably that the teachers are selected for other reasons than their teaching ability and the course of education is determined on other grounds than the welfare of the children.

In this particular measure there are other evils less obvious because they are involved in other portions of the charter. The proposal, for instance, that the expenditure of money for schools be subjected to the discretion of the general financial board of the city, and thus be made to take its chances with the other city departments, is contrary to public policy. The proposal that the safeguards now imposed by the State Civil Service Law be abandoned is a menace to the schools. The proposal that financial control of the schools be not only intrusted to the city administration, but even deprived of the scrutiny which the general city finances now have, is enough to condemn the measure. These points, however, particularly concern the people of New York. The two points on which we have laid stress are, on the other hand, of universal application.

Whether a board that acts as trustees of the schools of the people shall be a large board or a small board has been widely discussed. It is not possible to lay down a rule in this matter that is applicable alike to a small, compact community with a population measured in the hundreds or the thousands, and a vast community with a population measured by the millions. The whole tendency, however, is toward the small board. Whether the board should be elective or appointive is also a matter for discussion. We believe that, as a rule, the best results can be obtained through appointment. In either case, however—whether the board be small or large, whether it be elective or appointive—it should be an unpaid body, and it should be confined to purely administrative functions, with, at the most, only a veto power on questions of instruction and instructors. Wherever there is any suggestion that either of these principles be violated, the people, if not for their own sake, at least for the sake of the children, should emphatically say, "Hands off!"

THE NEW BIBLE

The change in the popular conception of the Bible during the last half-century is so great that the book may properly be called a new Bible. What that change is, as I have seen it, and in some measure participated in it, during the fifty years since my ordination to the Christian ministry, I here attempt to indicate.

Fifty years ago the Bible was almost universally regarded in orthodox circles as the Word of God, often as the words of God. That the phrase Word of God is never used in the Bible to designate the

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Bible, but always to designate the Spirit of God speaking to and through man, did not prevent the constant misuse of the term. This title implied the common faith that the Bible was a message given by God to man, through a limited number of prophets and apostles, and was equally infallible and authoritative in all its parts. It was often treated as a magazine of texts, to be used in defending a theological position from attacks or in attacking the theological position of an opponent. This habit was shared by preachers of all denominations. A mill in New England fell, involving in its ruin some hundreds of its employees. In preaching on this disaster a Unitarian minister took for his text, "It was a chance that did it." The fact that the saying was a pagan priest's estimate of a pestilence which the Jewish prophet regarded as a divine visitation did not seem to him to make its selection inappropriate as a text for a sermon against Calvinism. A judge of the Supreme Court of New York State in a judicial opinion said: "We have the highest possible authority for saying, 'Skin for skin, yea, all that a man hath will he give for his life.'" The New York "Herald" the next morning noted the fact that this sentiment was uttered by Satan, and added, "Now we know who it is that our judges regard as possessing the highest possible authority."

Already, fifty years ago, the more liberal among the orthodox were beginning to affirm that the Bible was not authoritative on scientific questions. But this was regarded by those of the stricter school as a dangerous concession. That the world was made in six days of twenty-four hours each was thought evident because it was explicitly declared in the Bible account of creation that the evening and the morning were the first day. The argument of geology as to the age of the world from the rocks was met by the claim that God could have produced the fossils in the rocks by a creative fiat; while, with a curious inconsistency, the universality of the deluge was regarded as proved by the presence of shells on the mountain tops. All statements of facts in the Bible were regarded as of equal authority. It was as vital to believe that the ax-head swam in the water as to believe that the Israelites crossed the Red Sea; and to disbelieve that the big fish swallowed Jonah was as infidel as to disbelieve in the resurrection of Jesus Christ. The whole system of evangelical theology was based on the fall of man, and the fall of man was based on the one story of Eden in the third chapter of Genesis. That neither the historians, the prophets, nor the poets of the Old Testament, nor that Jesus Christ in the New Testament, ever referred to the fall, and that Paul in his one analysis of the nature and cause of sin (in the seventh chapter of Romans) treated sin as originating, not in an ancient historical episode, but in man's animal nature, counted for nothing; or, to speak more accurately, was rarely considered at all. The Bible was set apart from all other books, the life of the Bible from ordinary life, and the men of the Bible from ordinary men. To my childish conception the Bible story was scarcely more historical and human than the stories of life in the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments." And when Dean Stanley in his "Lectures on the Jewish Church" and Dean Milman in his "History of Christianity" treated the life of the Bible as actual earthly life, and the heroes of Bible history as actual human heroes, their treatment was sharply criticised as perilously tending to skepticism.

The modern view of the Bible is radically different. It may be stated somewhat as follows:

The Bible is not a book. It is a library of sixty-six different books, written in its present form by forty or fifty different writers, but contributed to by many more. Its earliest book—the Book of the Covenant, contained in the present Book of Exodus—was written ten or twelve centuries before Christ; the Gospel of John, one of the latest, was written at the close of the first or the beginning of the second century after Christ. Thus for not less than ten or twelve hundred years was this library in process of formation. It contains all that is best in the literature of an ancient people which has survived the wrecks of time. In it are found history, biography, law both political and ecclesiastical, fiction, poetry, drama, practical ethics, practical theology. Art, music, and science are conspicuously absent, as is philosophy except in the latter portion of the New Testament, where it is philosophy used

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for practical purposes and applied to practical problems. To specify more in detail: Genesis contains the prehistoric traditions of this people, rewritten by an unknown prophet, probably as an introduction to the collection; the next four books are a collection of the laws of this people as they were gradually formed during a period of centuries of their national life; the books of history which follow are compilations from pre-existing materials, and it is possible now to distinguish to some extent these materials—the difference between two chief sources of the compilation coming out clearly in the parallel but independent narratives of Kings and Chronicles; Job is what Professor Genung has well called it, an "Epic of the Inner Life;" the Psalms are a collection of religious hymns, some of which were used in the Temple service, others in the synagogues, still others for private devotion; Proverbs and Ecclesiastes are books of ethical culture, which almost entirely ignore both the theological doctrines and the ecclesiastical institutions of the people; the Song of Songs is a love drama, one of the earliest as it is one of the most beautiful in the world's literature; and the prophetic books which follow are collections of addresses which may be compared to the political addresses of the modern moral reformers and the sermons of the modern practical preachers. The New Testament contains four biographies of Jesus of Nazareth, largely compiled from previous oral and documentary material; a history of the beginning of the apostolic churches; letters from evangelists to the infant churches; and a book of dream literature written to encourage faith and hope in the Church in a period of bitter persecution. But they are all, from the first chapter of Genesis to the last chapter of Revelation, records of human experiences. They are written, not by amanuenses inscribing at dictation something which they could not have learned except by miraculous information, but by men of like passions as we ourselves are, writing down what they have seen and felt, and writing it down that their readers may see and feel the same life-truths. The Bible is a library of characteristically human experiences.

What makes it a religious library is that these are experiences of divine companionship. A certain common life linked together these men of such widely different temperaments and living in widely different epochs. They saw that God is in his world, and they wrote for the purpose of telling others what and whom they had seen. Their message, uttered in such different forms, is still essentially one: that God is Immanuel, God with us, our Great Companion. Their writings are a revelation because they are a revealing—that is, an unveiling—of God in human life. The moral law is not the edict of a king or the statutes of a legislature, but the laws of conscience interpreted by prophets who heard in conscience the voice of the Eternal. The ecclesiastical law is not a series of canons made by priests for the benefit of a church, but methods devised or adapted by the church as appropriate expressions, for that time, of human experiences of penitence, praise, and consecration. The history is not a history of great kings or a great people, but of God dealing with the kings and with the people. The poetry, the fiction, and the drama are not written for entertainment. They are written to manifest to men through the fancy, the imagination, and the emotions the God who walks unseen by our side, a Friend and Helper as well as a Lawgiver. The writers on ethical culture base their fundamental maxims on their conviction of the truth that righteousness in a world governed by a righteous God is the only true wisdom. And the great preachers of social and personal righteousness base all their instructions on the same clear vision of the presence of a God with whom the soul and with whom the community must be in harmony if it is to be at peace with itself. The value of the Bible does not depend on the question whether the ax-head swam in the water, or the big fish swallowed Jonah, or the deluge was universal, or the world was made in six days, or the first man was perfect, though all his descendants have been imperfect. It depends on the question whether in their messages these interpreters of human experience, personal and social, have interpreted it truly, a message which may be briefly stated as follows:

There is one God. He is a righteous Person who demands righteousness of his

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children, and who demands nothing more and will accept nothing less; who is their Friend and Companion; who will help them to be righteous if they are willing to accept his help; who does not treasure up their transgressions against them, but pardons and absolves them if they truly repent, and helps them, when they have fallen, to get upon their feet again. He lives with them and in them, and he has illustrated what companionship with him means by the life and character of the men who have lived in that companionship, and pre-eminently by the life and character of Jesus of Nazareth, who at once reveals—that is, unveils—to them what God is and what men can become.

I have here attempted simply to describe these two views of the Bible, frankly acknowledging the radical difference between the two, and with equal frankness implying my rejection of the first and my acceptance of the second. Here this article might end. But I cannot forbear adding my conviction that the second view does not weaken but enhances the authority of religion. The Bible was formerly regarded as a letter from God; it is now regarded as a personal introduction to God. And it is not a letter, it is the Person, that humanity wants; not an infallible message about God, but God himself. In the Bible as a book of human experience God is attested as having his dwelling-place with men as truly in the twentieth century after Christ as in the twelfth century before Christ; as truly in America as in Palestine; as truly with the men of vision to-day as with the prophets and apostles of the older time. Every religious experience, from an unsatisfied desire for God to a satisfying companionship with God, is here portrayed. We may begin with the agnosticism of Job, "Oh that I knew where I might find him!" and trace in human experience the successive steps to the assurance of Paul that "neither death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor things present, nor things to come, nor powers, nor height, nor depth, nor any other creature, shall be able to separate us from the love of God, which is in Christ Jesus our Lord." More sacred than the old Bible, regarded as a message from God to a godless world, is the new Bible, regarded as an unveiling of God in human experience, that all human experience may be full of God.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

THE NATIONAL PEACE CONGRESS

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE

ANY one who fancies that the peace movement is confined to cranks, visionaries, dreamers, or even non-resistants, unless his mind is closed to all evidence, would have his fancy corrected had he attended the Third National Peace Congress held in Baltimore May 3–6. The Peace movement has become a great world movement. In support of it, at this Congress, were men eminent in the Nation as statesmen, educators, business men, editors—men and women from every profession and of every social rank. In some respects it was not as notable a gathering as the first Peace Congress in New York—the second Congress in Chicago I did not attend—not as representative as some of the Conferences held annually at Lake Mohonk. But, with some faces familiar to one who has been in the habit of attending these Conferences, there were others not familiar. The peace army—if the contradiction may be permitted—is not like a stage army, in which a score or two of men by marching round and round endeavor to produce the effect of a considerable host. The movement, democratic in its scope and support, has grown into a great popular movement, and is the expression of the conscience and the growing will of the plain people. In the opening afternoon session, when the President and Cardinal Gibbons were present and spoke, Lyric Hall, the opera-house of Baltimore, was filled to overflowing; all standing room was taken and many were turned away. This was, of course, largely due to the presence of the President; but it was the theme, rather than the speak-

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ers, that drew to the subsequent sessions at McCoy Hall an audience which always filled it comfortably and in the evening sessions overtaxed its capacity. Among the seventy speakers whose names appeared on the programme, only one or two of whom failed to appear, there were eight college presidents and deans, besides other well-known educators. It is indeed one of the hopeful signs of this movement that those who have the directing of our schools and colleges are so largely and so intelligently interested in it. Statesmen were represented, primarily of course by the President of the United States; but other representatives were the Hon. Huntington Wilson, Assistant Secretary of State; the Hon. Richard Bartholdt and the Hon. James A. Slayden, Members of Congress; the Hon. John W. Foster, former Secretary of State; and the Hon. Champ Clark, Speaker of the House of Representatives. Business classes were represented by such men as Andrew Carnegie, and Mr. Speyer of the New York Chamber of Commerce; editors by Mr. MacDonald of the Toronto "Globe," Mr. Talcott Williams of the Philadelphia "Press," and Mr. Hamilton Holt of the New York "Independent." Among the many representatives of the Church may be especially mentioned Cardinal Gibbons and the Rt. Rev. John G. Murray, the Bishop of Maryland. Japan, France, and Belgium were represented by delegates. In a Peace Congress there are as many peace creeds as there are religious creeds in a Congress of Religions; and in this Congress, while all looked forward to a world peace as the ideal to be kept constantly in view, there was a great variety of opinion respecting the subject, from that of one woman essayist who defined war as collective murder, to that of Mr. Taft, who warned his hearers not to expect that arbitration would straightway put an end to war. The general sentiment of the Congress, as expressed in the Resolutions, of which more presently, was sober, self-restrained.

Quite as interesting to the spectator were the differences in personality of men of eminence and power who were seen co-operating in this movement. Here was the President of the United States, broad of shoulder, large of frame, powerful alike in physique and in mentality, whose characteristic appearance might be summed up in the two words good-natured strength, and whose public policy reflects his temperament, a policy which would make the Nation both strong and pacific. There was, in striking physical contrast to him as the two sat on the stage together, Cardinal Gibbons, whose delicate frame, finely chiseled features, luminous face—a transparency for the moral and intellectual light within—would have marked him as both scholar and leader, quite apart from the red cap which he wore as the symbol of his high office. There was Mr. MacDonald, whom nature made an orator, who captured the audience with his first sentence, and held eager listeners with his persuasive personality to the end. There was Andrew Carnegie, Scotchman in his physique, Scotchman in his features, Scotchman in his vigorous assertiveness, and Scotchman in his intense humanity and his dry humor—a fine type of a curiously misread and misinterpreted nationality. There was Talcott Williams, who is not an orator and makes no effort to be one, but who always wins from his audience the kind of breathless attention which they give to orators, because from his first sentence to his closing one it is clear to them that he has something to say, no sentence of which can they afford to lose. There was Richard Bartholdt, who devoted himself to the advocacy of this cause when it was thought to be advocated only by impracticable visionaries, and dared to be laughed at in those early days—a kind of courage not too common in American political life. There was Price Collier, whose pungent address on the American fault of bumptious self-conceit and the perils which it involved cut like a rapier, and might have been a sermon on the necessity of plucking the beam out of our own eye before we attempt to pick the mote out of our brother's eye, except that sermons are not often as pointed or as practical.

The most significant utterance in these meetings was undoubtedly this emphatic declaration of President Taft:

> Now, asseveration, I presume, helps but little where the suspicion is real, and yet I like to avail myself of the opportunity in such a presence as this to assert that there

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is not, in the whole length and breadth of the United States, among its people any desire for territorial aggrandizement; and that its people as a whole will not permit this Government, if it would, to take any steps in respect to foreign governments except those which will aid those foreign governments and those foreign people in maintaining their own government and maintaining peace within their territories.

Scarcely less significant was Cardinal Gibbons's brief but emphatic indorsement of the proposed all-inclusive treaty with Great Britain. "I am persuaded," he said, "that the signing of a treaty of arbitration between Great Britain and the United States would not only be a source of incalculable blessings to those two great powers, but would go far toward the maintenance of permanent international peace throughout the civilized world." In this connection may be mentioned what appeared to me to be a very wise suggestion made by Mr. Bartholdt, that, if any object to a treaty which does not in terms except our vital interests, our honor, and our independence, it would be a simple matter to insert in the preamble to the treaty a provision that each party agrees to respect these fundamental rights of the other party. One other utterance is worthy of special note—that of Mr. Price Collier, who gave account, from his own personal observation, of the extent to which Japan's energies are absorbed in Formosa, Korea, and Manchuria, an absorption which is utterly inconsistent with the theory advanced in certain quarters that she is laying her plans for war with the United States.

Turning from these special utterances, the general theme of the Congress may be formulated somewhat as follows.

At present the civilized nations are living in a state of chronic war, each armed to protect itself from attack by its neighbor, each looking with more or less latent suspicion upon its neighbor. This involves even in time of peace a war burden which is becoming intolerable. President Thwing, of Western Reserve University, presented some statistics in which the endowments for the higher education in each several State were compared with the cost of the battle-ship which bears the name of that State, statistics which left on the mind of the hearer the general impression that the cost of building our navy approximates, if it does not equal, the money invested in all our colleges and universities. The cost in money is not, however, so serious as the cost in life. Miss E. L. Lord, the Dean of Goucher College, maintained that whereas human development requires the survival of the fittest, war destroys the fittest and leaves only the feebler and less virile to survive. Meanwhile war is creating false ideals and developing vicious qualities: idleness and vice in time of peace, wrath and inhumanity in time of war. That in older times it developed a certain type of heroism was not denied; but the style of combat has changed. Said Mr. Carnegie, with a characteristic touch of humor which the cold type fails to represent: "The heroes who stand and shoot at each other, scarcely discernible miles distant, or in ships at sea firing through space seven miles away—for such has modern war become—the courage required for this does not strike one as obviously very heroic."

The remedy for international war is indicated by historic precedents. The appeal to law has taken the place within the nation of the appeal to force; Professor William I. Hull traced the parallel between the revolution which substituted jury trial for wager of battle and private war, and the modern movement which proposes to accomplish the same revolution in social controversies. There appeared to be but one sentiment in the Congress, expressed alike in public speech and in private conversation, in hearty and enthusiastic support of the proposed unqualified and unlimited treaty of arbitration with Great Britain as a preliminary to similar treaties with other nations. Other concurrent remedies for war were, however, proposed. Thus, Mr. Speyer, of New York, proposed the adoption of financial neutrality. Why, he asked, should international law regard it as a violation of neutrality to furnish arms to a combatant, and not regard it as a violation of neutrality to furnish him money with which to buy arms? Friendly offices by stronger nations to weaker nations were also urged. In the last sixty years most of the wars have grown out of the inability or the unwillingness of a nation to keep order within its own territory, said

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Talcott Williams. The doctrine that one nation is not concerned in the internal affairs of another nation cannot be taken without qualification. The atrocities in the Congo concern the civilized world. The intolerable misgovernment in Cuba under Spain concerned the United States. That friendly offices in such a case were often a preventive of war was urged by Mr. Wilson, Assistant Secretary of State; and what we have done in Santo Domingo to supervise her finances and so protect her from bankruptcy, and also to bring about the settlement of a threatened war between Santo Domingo and Hayti, was mentioned by the President as an illustration of such wise intervention. This and other historic illustrations appeared to me a sufficient answer to the Hon. James A. Slayden, of Texas, who wanted the United States to abandon the Monroe Doctrine and leave the South and Central American States to take care of themselves without help from us. It was Mr. Wilson who went to the heart of the whole subject in his declaration that the cause of war is in the human heart; and therefore in the human heart must be found the assurance of hope. And this fundamental declaration gave significance and force to the addresses of Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews and the Rev. Milton Fairchild, outlining plans for developing the intelligence and conscience of the young, through adequate teaching in our schools, in support of the principles and the spirit of peace.

Was this all? Oh no! But as no sensible man would attempt to attend morning, afternoon, and evening conferences of from two to three hours each and hope to take in the papers and addresses of seventy speakers, I have perhaps given my readers as large a proportion of the Congress as they would have individually obtained had they attended in person.

The Resolutions adopted by the Congress were not themselves debated in open session; but they were prepared by a representative committee, and if they did not say all that some of the more radical advocates of peace might desire, they were perfectly explicit in what they did say, and their suggestions and recommendations were of measures which have approved themselves to eminent statesmen in different countries as entirely practicable of immediate adoption. The Resolutions noted as landmarks in the progress already made toward a world peace: the agreement for an International Prize Court; the Pan-American treaty for the submission to arbitration of all questions growing out of pecuniary claims; the hundred years of peace between English-speaking peoples, accompanied by the prohibition of fortifications and war vessels along over three thousand miles of Canadian frontier; the resolution of the Congress of the United States for the appointment of a Commission to consider the possibilities of an international understanding relative to armaments and to institutions to preserve and promote international peace; the successful settlement of the Newfoundland fisheries dispute by arbitration; and the gifts of money and service by various distinguished citizens to the cause of peace. The Resolutions urged: the early negotiation of a general arbitration treaty between the United States and Great Britain, as proposed by President Taft and approved by Earl Grey; the formation of a model all-inclusive arbitration treaty on the same lines with a view to its adoption by all the leading Powers; the earliest possible establishment of a Permanent Court of Arbitral Justice; the formation of an International League of Peace to promote the peaceful settlement of all questions between the civilized Powers, but without the idea of the use of force in any way in connection with the League; the continuous study by officially appointed commissions of the limitation of armaments; the early preparation by the Powers for the next Hague Conference, with a view to securing delegates thoroughly informed upon the questions to be submitted to that Conference; and the early attention of Congress to the recommendation of President Taft for the enactment of laws which will confer upon the Federal Government power to fulfill its treaty obligations by protecting foreigners upon our shores and punishing offenses against them. And the Congress provided for its own continued existence by a resolution authorizing its President to appoint a committee to organize the session for 1913.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

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THE COST OF DISEASE

BY EARL MAYO

This is the fifth article in the series "Big Battles Against Disease," in the preparation of which the author has had the assistance of eminent physicians, surgeons, laboratory workers, and scientific experimenters in the field of medicine and surgery.—THE EDITORS.

A FEW years ago the town of P—— was considering the adoption of steps to obtain a pure water supply. The water used by the town came from a river along which were many manufacturing towns and big mills. The sewage from these towns and the water from the mills were dumped into the river above P—— at various points, the nearest of which was only about eight miles away. It was known that the water supply was contaminated, for examination had disclosed the presence of dangerous bacteria in large numbers. Cases of typhoid fever and other forms of gastro-intestinal disease were always present in the city.

The need for the establishment of a filtration plant or of the adoption of some other means to render the water supply safe was fully evident. The obstacle to definite action in this direction was the usual one of expense. Of the various proposals for a pure water supply brought before the citizens, one that had the approval of engineering and health authorities as being reasonably satisfactory involved an expenditure of $225,000. The more progressive citizens insisted that the health of the community was worth far more than that, but many others opposed the plan. They pointed out that the town was already heavily encumbered by the expenses incurred in street paving and other improvements. While there were some cases of typhoid fever, it was an incontestable fact that many persons had been drinking the water for years without being attacked by the disease. By one means and another they managed to postpone any definite action.

In the late winter of the succeeding year there were heavy rains accompanying the melting of snow and ice in the section along the river. The small streams tributary to it were swollen to a degree almost unprecedented. The accumulated dirt and débris that had been lying on the frozen ground for months was washed off into the river. For several days the water flowing through the pipes and into the homes of the citizens of P—— was turbid, but this was nothing unusual, and the water continued to be used by all except the most fastidious citizens.

Exactly ten days after the freshet, however, an unusual number of cases of typhoid fever began to make their appearance in P——. As the attendance on these was divided among the numerous physicians of the town, little attention was paid to the matter at first, but within a week the number had increased so greatly that the town realized that it was in the grip of an epidemic of typhoid.

As the cases multiplied the dangers of the situation were impressed upon the citizens. The Board of Health awoke from its usual somnolence. The people were advised to boil their drinking water, and instructions were issued covering the care of typhoid patients, the disinfection of wastes from the sick-room, and other measures designed to prevent the spread of the disease. For twelve weeks the fever continued with scarcely abated violence, and the number of cases remained above the ordinary for several months following.

At the conclusion of the epidemic, one of the citizens set out to glean some information as to what the spring freshet, sweeping a flood of typhoid bacteria into every home in the community, had cost the city. He collected statistics of the number of cases of illness, the length of time each person had been sick, the average expense of medical attendance, the loss of wages due to absence from employment, and the economic value to the community of the lives sacrificed to the disease. In the three months while the outbreak was at its worst there had been 1,067 cases of typhoid and 69 deaths. Just about one-half of those stricken with the disease, or 512, were wage-earners, and the average time lost from work by

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these was four weeks. Others who were not attacked were forced to leave work in order to care for relatives who were ill. Of those who died at different age periods the largest number were in middle life or just approaching the earning period when their economic value was highest. The cost of medical attendance, nursing, and medicines was averaged from a number of cases in different grades of prosperity. The final account stood something like this:

Cost of cases treated at home (doctors, nurses, and medicines)	$43,254
Cost of hospital treatment (pay patients only)	5,586
Contributions to meet increased cost of hospital maintenance	4,350
Wages lost by 522 wage-earners through illness	46,980
Wages lost by workers attending sick members of their families	5,212
Funeral expenses of 69 deaths	7,718
Total expenditure	$113,100
Economic value of 69 lives lost	172,500
Total	$285,600

These figures, of course, were not comprehensive. They included only the more important and more easily get-at-able items of expenditure. No allowance was made for the loss of time of others than those working for wages. No estimate was made of the cost of the long train of other diseases due, directly or indirectly, to the same cause as the typhoid outbreak. The estimated value placed on the lives of those who died was considered very low in view of the fact that so many of them were at the most productive stage of life. Leaving out of account all these important factors, however, the exhibit showed that this one outbreak cost P—— more than the entire amount needed to pay for an improved water supply. It was a terribly expensive lesson, but it was an effective one. The appropriation for a pure water supply was made with practically no opposition, and the completion of the work saw the average yearly death rate from typhoid and other related diseases decreased more than two-thirds. Capitalizing the saving made by this improvement during a period of twenty years showed that the town had gained millions of dollars by its investment in a safe water supply.

This is a composite case, not an actual one, but it could be matched in essential details by the experiences of scores of American towns and cities. There is no community handicapped by an excessive typhoid death rate due to an infected water supply that would not realize an actual, measurable monetary gain by remedying this condition. There is no community in which the expenditure necessary to prevent the spread of tuberculosis would not yield a handsome monetary return on the investment. Throughout the list of preventable diseases there is not one the endurance of which is not far more costly than its prevention would be. Compare the cost of vaccination with the frightful ravages of a single smallpox epidemic, the cost of mosquito destruction with the industrial stagnation and loss imposed by the scourge of yellow fever or by malaria, or the cost of producing and administering diphtheria antitoxin with the monetary value of the tens of thousands of lives saved by it every year. The larger loss, the social loss, the privation, misery, and sorrow caused by preventable disease, it is quite impossible to measure by any monetary standard. But even when confining ourselves to economic effects it is easy to prove that the neglect of serious efforts to prevent disease, while we are forced continually to pay vast sums for its alleviation and attempted cure, is the most unwise and unprofitable possible way of managing our vital affairs. This is the chief value of attempted estimates of the financial loss inflicted by disease, since such estimates never can be thoroughly exact or completely comprehensive.

Occasionally in the case of an epidemic it is possible to draw fairly accurate conclusions as to the financial loss inflicted. Such a balancing of accounts with disease was made by a Philadelphia physician after the smallpox outbreaks in that city in 1891–2. The figures were prepared with much care, and took in not only the expenses of sickness and burial and of the loss of time from employment, but also the loss to transportation companies and to other business establishments. The total of these various amounts was between twenty-one and twenty-two millions of dollars. On the other side of the account was placed a statement of the

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amounts that would have been required to prevent this outbreak entirely. These included allowances for the establishment of a vaccine bureau and for vaccinating all the citizens, for establishing a disinfecting station completely equipped, and for instructing the public fully in the methods necessary to prevent the spread of the disease. The total of these various items was less than $750,000. This one outbreak of one disease in a single city was responsible for a net loss of twenty-one million dollars. Although smallpox is regarded as a disease of almost negligible consequence, the economic loss imposed by it throughout the world totals a tremendous sum every year. Yet there is a considerable body of persons who, denying the germ theory of disease and opposing the use of animals for the benefit of mankind in the production of serums or in other fields of medical research, attempt to secure the repeal of vaccination laws and to open the door to frightful epidemics of the disease in States and communities now protected from it.

The discovery of the method by which yellow fever is transmitted and of the means of preventing it must rank as one of the great economic discoveries of the nineteenth century for an important section of the Western Hemisphere. Not only the high mortality of yellow fever, but also the complete commercial stagnation which it inflicted on every community invaded by it, made this one of the most costly of infectious diseases. The Government Commission appointed in 1897 to investigate yellow fever estimated that the single epidemic of 1878 imposed a loss of $100,000,000 on the cities of the Southern States. Nearly $5,000,000 was contributed as a public relief fund to aid the communities stricken in this epidemic. General Leonard Wood is authority for the statement that the discovery of Major Reed and his associates saves the commercial world annually a sum greater than the entire cost of the Cuban war, as a result of which the investigation was undertaken. To estimate the loss caused by yellow fever in the century and more during which its ravages continued without any effective check is quite impossible.

More widespread and even more devastating in their sweep than yellow fever are those two terrible scourges, Asiatic cholera and the bubonic plague. Though the plague never has gained a strong foothold in the United States, and there has been no serious epidemic of cholera for three-quarters of a century, European and Asiatic countries have been swept by them repeatedly. Epidemics of both have occurred in which more than a quarter of a million persons were attacked and nearly half as many were killed. In the single year 1886 cholera cost Japan a hundred thousand lives and inflicted a loss that could not have been less than two hundred million dollars. In the city of Hamburg the cholera epidemic of 1892 destroyed eight thousand lives and cost that commercial city twenty-five million dollars or more. In comparison with these figures the entire amount that has been expended in the health inspection of shipping entering the various ports of the country and in other precautions that have kept these diseases out of the United States, even though they were brought into some of its seaports, seems altogether negligible.

Malaria is another disease the control of which has a very important economic aspect. In the words of Lord Cromer, the knowledge of the means of preventing the spread of malaria which was gained by extended research and experiment has made Ismailia and other important commercial cities of the Near East habitable. As has been repeated over and over again, the conquering of malaria and yellow fever together, more than engineering skill or other factors, is making possible the construction of the Panama Canal. The demonstration of practical measures by which these two diseases can be driven out and kept out has removed the one chief bar to the occupation of tropic and sub-tropic regions by men from the temperate zones, and thus is proving of incalculable benefit to the commercial interests of the world.

The economic value of a human life varies greatly, of course, according to age and other conditions, and accordingly it is capitalized on the basis of earning power or on the amount invested in individual upbringing, education, and training. Perhaps the most accurate way to represent life values is by a curve which gradually

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rises from infancy to maturity and then falls slowly as old age approaches. Thus, taking fifteen hundred dollars as the value of a life up to the age of five years, this figure will be doubled for the period from fifteen to twenty, and quintupled for that from thirty to thirty-five. From this point it drops again, so that the man of sixty-five and the child of five represent about equal value.

Accepting this basis or estimate, it is obvious that of two diseases equally prevalent, the one that attacks the greater number of persons at the more productive periods of life is economically the more expensive. Typhoid fever, by reason of the fact that its heaviest age incidence falls almost at the prime of life, is perhaps the most wasteful of all preventable diseases. An average of the mortality at various ages from typhoid shows that the average value of the lives destroyed by it is about forty-five hundred dollars. The severity of the disease and its comparatively long duration make it unusually expensive even in those cases that do not terminate fatally.

An authority who has devoted much attention to the study of typhoid fever statistics estimates that the thirty-three thousand deaths reported from this disease in the United States by the census of 1900, with the attendant cases of illness, cost the country the enormous sum of $212,000,000. In view of the fact that typhoid is a preventable disease, and that its spread is due entirely to ignorance or carelessness, this must be regarded as absolute waste. At least three-quarters of these cases could be prevented by the adoption of measures that have been clearly and repeatedly indicated, and are generally understood. Placing the preventable waste at $150,000,000 a year, this amounts to the enormous sum of a billion and a half dollars in the past ten years, an amount that would provide a safe water supply and effective health inspection in every typhoid-ridden city in the country. The saving effected by substituting a safe water supply for the one carrying the bacilli of typhoid fever has been worked out by comparing the death rate from typhoid before and after the improvement in various cities. These computations have shown an increase in sanitary value amounting to from three to ten dollars for every member of the community.

The continued existence of typhoid fever as a heavy contributor to the mortality tables is a blot on our civilization in view of the fact that means of preventing the greater part of the disease are ready at hand and easy of application. Even if the subject be viewed on the lower ground of economic expediency, we find that the adoption of measures for the prevention of typhoid would prove a highly profitable investment, that its money cost alone during a single decade amounts to more than would the abolition of three-fourths of all the cases of it with the prospect of its almost total extinction within a few years.

A striking comparison used by a medical writer in reference to the scientific work of Pasteur asserts that he saved to France during the thirty years following the Franco-Prussian War an amount greater than the total indemnity of one billion dollars exacted from his country at the conclusion of that struggle. This statement must be regarded as within, rather than beyond, the facts. In connection with the single disease of rabies, to the treatment of which the great French scientist's name has been given, the world is indebted to Pasteur for an amount greater than the sum named. At the Pasteur Institute in Paris during the twenty years following its establishment in 1886 over twenty-nine thousand persons were treated, with only one hundred and twenty-two deaths, or a mortality of only a fraction over four-tenths of one per cent. Similar results have been achieved in other institutions giving the Pasteur treatment in many parts of the world. The few animals used by Pasteur in demonstrating that rabies can be prevented by the prompt inoculation of a bitten person have been the means of saving tens of thousands of lives and of preventing sufferings almost inconceivable.

As in the case of all infectious diseases, however, the proper method of dealing with rabies, on grounds of financial consideration no less than on those of humanity, is by the adoption of measures directed to its extinction. Since the disease is spread among animals and men by rabid dogs, the strict muzzling of all dogs and the prompt destruction of all those that

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show symptoms of rabies would accomplish this happy result within a very few years. Once the rabies was thoroughly stamped out, the muzzling could be suspended, providing authority were retained to compel its renewal at the first reappearance of the disease. By this means, combined with a strict quarantine of dogs entering the country, England has succeeded in doing away with rabies, and her example might be followed profitably by the United States, which still contributes hundreds of victims annually to this unnecessary and horrible disease. If the financial value of human lives is not recognized as of sufficient importance to justify the suppression of rabies, the property in domestic animals that would be saved by such measures certainly should lead to their adoption. The tenderness that would save dogs from the slight inconvenience of muzzling, at the sacrifice of thousands of human lives and tens of thousands of valuable animals, is certainly misplaced, if indeed it should not be called criminal.

Estimates, even on the most conservative basis, of the cost of any of the more widespread diseases amount to tremendous totals. In the case of many infectious diseases it should be borne in mind, however, that conditions are steadily improving. The waste of life from typhoid fever is far less than it was a generation ago. One after another the towns and cities of the country are learning the importance of guarding against the main causes of infection by this and kindred diseases. Yellow fever has been stamped out. Cholera and the plague are kept out of the country by the careful inspection maintained at its principal gateways. The progress already made in the combat against disease represents an economic gain of tremendous importance. The lives saved every year in the United States by the reduction in the mortality from diphtheria since the introduction of the antitoxin possess an economic value of nearly $100,000,000. The chief cause of regret or of complaint in the case of many of these diseases is not with the progress that has been made, but that it has not been more complete. Where ten persons die from typhoid fever or diphtheria at the present time, twenty died from the same causes a score of years ago, but only one out of ten should die from them if the knowledge and skill available actually were employed in opposing them.

In considering the loss inflicted upon mankind by various diseases, the one that reaches such enormous figures that even the statistician's pencil falters in computing them is tuberculosis. Throughout the world more than a million persons die every year from this cause alone, and the United States contributes approximately one-tenth of this vast army of victims. One-third of all the deaths that occur during the period of early maturity are caused by tuberculosis. Not only does it bear most heavily upon the most productive period of life, but the relatively slow course of the disease, the long period during which the sufferer from it is unable to labor and requires care, nursing, and medical attention, adds greatly to the economic burden which it imposes. The value of the lives destroyed by tuberculosis in the United States every year cannot be placed at less than $250,000,000. Leaving this out of account and considering only the actual expenditure for special foods and medicine, nursing, medical attendance, loss of wages, hospital maintenance, and burial expenses, the yearly tax imposed upon the country by this one disease is easily $90,000,000 or more. This is equivalent to a head tax of one dollar upon every man, woman, and child in the country.

While it is true that tuberculosis inflicts a heavier burden upon the country than does any other one disease, it is true also that it is being fought more energetically than any other. Cities, counties, States, the Nation, philanthropic organizations, and private beneficence are being drawn into the contest against this tremendous scourge to a greater extent than in any previous case in the history of the world. An estimate quoted in a previous article placed the annual outlay in the United States in the warfare on tuberculosis at $8,000,000. This is a large amount to be devoted to combating a single disease, and yet it is puny in comparison to the cost of the disease itself. The total expenditure on the restriction and prevention of the disease is less than one-tenth the expenditure upon the disease itself, and less than one-fortieth of its cost to the

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country. It would seem that sound and wise economic considerations would justify devoting $40,000,000 or $50,000,000 to this purpose rather than $8,000,000; and the larger amount could be expended advantageously, for it is true that money will accomplish more toward putting an end to tuberculosis than it will in the case of most diseases.

Reference has been made thus far only to the expenditure and the economic loss caused by deaths from preventable diseases. Forty per cent or more of all deaths come within this category, and the loss to the United States from deaths that could be prevented by the adoption of measures already well defined amounts to $750,000,000 a year. This is the sum that could be realized by the adoption—and the enforcement—of more effective sanitary provisions, and by the intelligent efforts of individual citizens acting in co-operation with the medical profession. It is a sum well worth saving, for every dollar of it represents not only economic waste but also pain, suffering, and sorrow, all unnecessary.

When we turn from the diseases that are already preventable to those that still defy scientific inquiry and professional skill, the need for a greater expenditure in the study of disease and in the search for the means of its prevention is in no degree lessened. The return on investment for this purpose is hardly less certain, though perhaps less direct and immediate, than in the case of preventable diseases. While it is probable that many of the bodily afflictions before which we are now comparatively helpless may continue to baffle all preventive efforts for many years to come, others are likely to yield to further investigation and to be transferred from the list of incurable ailments to a place among those that are curable or preventable.

As we have seen in previous articles, nearly all of the remarkable progress that has been made in the past generation in understanding, overcoming, and preventing many diseases that formerly ran unchecked has been achieved through experiments upon animals, aided by anæsthesia and asepsis. It is reasonable to expect that the continuance and the extension of such experiments will accomplish for cancer and other diseases causing a high mortality what has already been accomplished for diphtheria, typhoid fever, and many other widespread infections. Hundreds of millions of dollars have been given by philanthropic individuals, as well as through appropriations by municipalities, for the erection of hospitals and institutions devoted to the care and treatment of diseased persons, but comparatively little for research into the causes and the cure of disease itself. Until the foundation of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research in New York a few years ago, the United States possessed no institution devoted exclusively to this work. The results accomplished by the workers in this institution in the few years of its existence in discovering an effective treatment for cerebrospinal meningitis, in overcoming infantile paralysis, in working out new marvels of surgery, and in adding to our knowledge of many other diseases, show clearly the importance of increasing the resources devoted to experimental research. Other laboratories have been erected within the past few years, such as that created by the State of New York for the investigation of cancer and that maintained by New York City for research into all matters affecting the health of its citizens. Special funds have been created by individuals, and in a few cases by the National Government, for the investigation of particular diseases. A considerable amount of research work is done by the leading medical schools and by private investigators. Year by year important results are being obtained from all these efforts, although the whole amount expended upon them seems almost inconsequential when compared with the vast toll exacted from the Nation yearly by the various forms of disease. In certain quarters strenuous efforts are being made to restrict or to prevent the experimental researches now being carried on. The more humane as well as the more intelligent course would be to encourage the extension of experiments upon animals, conducted as these are with the minimum of suffering, in the hope that by this means man's ability to prevent and to overcome disease will be tremendously extended in the future as it has been in the recent past.

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TOTEMS AND TADPOLES

BY JANE MARSH PARKER

A FEW months ago, half asleep on a drowsy afternoon, after a morning of prolonged mental effort, I found myself resting on an article by Max Nordau, the title of which my exhausted brain did not record. I said to myself that I would read it again in a more receptive mood; but the magazine disappeared before I could do so—the replacing of missing periodicals on demand being a serious matter out here in Back of Beyond. But one phrase there was in that article that had been etched deep in my memory. I found myself constantly dwelling upon it; it went humming with the undercurrents of my thought; it called, it answered: "*the totem stage of human thought.*" It was *that* which finally gave the impulse to the evolution of this article, for it sent me back over threescore miles and ten to what is left of my childhood's totems—their sacrificial ashes. I am sure that Max Nordau discoursed upon the parallelism between the totems of races and those of children, the parallelism existing between the intellectual development of a people and that of a child, the gradual dawning of a comprehension of religious verities, and the aid given by imagination in revelation of divine truth.

"We dare confess as a weakness of our childhood oddities which would stamp us grown men and women as decidedly queer," a recent essayist wrote, seemingly, to me, to justify these confessions; it surely helped in bringing them to pass. And then another writer added, "They form a class by themselves—the intimates of illusion;" and another (I have only my memory to go by) stated, in substance, that any influence that gives a personality to inanimate things, quickening the imagination, is likely to bring forth poetical fancies of a high order—in short, to produce real poets. All of which, as I have tried to make plain, has thrown great light upon the totems of my childhood, a belated light in my case, prompting uplifting of my share of it to those still sitting in the darkness of "facts—nothing but absolute facts." Of such were my pious parents. The weakness and oddity of my childhood (allowing that such my decided make-believe tendency might be called) were to them positive proof that original sin reigned in my members, that I was truly a lover and maker of lies, sure to have part in the brimstony lake it must have exercised their imagination overmuch to describe. My imaginings kept me abundantly supplied with totems. They were my idols. My parents hurled them to the ground for my soul's salvation, never dreaming that in so doing they were possibly robbing the world of a poet. What did the pious parents of seventy years ago know about that "elementary stage of egotism" that we of to-day glibly define with certainty as the very soil indispensable for the raising of poets? Liar is an awful name to give a dearly beloved child; and I was, until transformed, a liar to her that bore me—something decidedly other than an "intimate of illusion" or "an atavistic sympathizer."

It was upon my fifth birthday that my mother gave me a little red chair, and here the story of my totems may properly begin, although I have vague remembrance of similar experiences happening to me before this one. With my first sight of that chair came an aversion for it. "It looks like Dinah Culp," I said, and pushed it into a corner. I greatly disliked Dinah; she pinched me on the sly, told fibs, sniffled, and was stingy. It pleased me to whack the little chair soundly with a hammer one day, my confession of the cause greatly distressing my mother—my stubborn insistence that the chair not only looked like Dinah but made faces at me; I was made to sit in it until I would own to telling a falsehood. That confession was my first deliberate lie. I had learned, besides, that I must have secrets from my mother. I must never tell her that father's big walking-stick with a deer's-horn head looked exactly like Deacon Brown, and that our red pump was Aunt Eunice right over again. Houses had faces, of course—faces that

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talked in a way I understood. There was one that always looked glad at seeing me; there was another that would have liked to chase me down the road. It could hump its back and growl, "true as you live." But I did not tell. Back of the graveyard, in a wild-blackberry patch, there was an abandoned log cabin that was always trying to get me to come and play with it; so one spring morning, when I was riding with my father within sight of it, it smiled to see me coming, for the crocuses were blossoming fast, it said, and the lilacs were budding, and there were lots of cunning brown rabbits skipping through its open doors. Delighted, I forgot, and broke into what my father was thinking hard about (his next sermon, no doubt), and I actually pulled on the lines and begged him to let me get out of the wagon at once and stay there with the old house until he came back for me. "It's so lonesome, it says," I pleaded. "How would we like staying there all alone always; never any smoke coming out of our chimney, nor any children playing house under our apple trees?" The look he gave me I can never forget. Had I been asleep? He was greatly troubled, and inclined to take me home at once. But we drove on, I falling asleep, nestled against him, as he told me about vain imaginations of wicked hearts, and how dreadful it was to tell as truth what was all a lie, quoting from the Bible what it says about liars, I pretending to be asleep before I really was, for he was asking hard questions with disagreeable applications. But I knew for a certainty that he didn't know what he was talking about. Yes, the old house was sobbing when we drove by.

Clean cut against the sky before the west window of my chamber was a long line of tree-tops—a high wall of hemlocks—hoary giants of the forest primeval. They were to me my special guardians, always nodding back when I bade them good-night from my pillow. They had lovely faces—no two alike—the faces of old men with long, wavy beards. There was a beautiful star that used to slip into the beard of the biggest giant and cuddle out of sight like a bird in a nest. Some day I would climb to the top of those trees and find nests full of star-eggs. That those old tree-tops talked with the stars I never doubted; and that they looked after the tiny little stars that had run away from the big procession, solemnly marching through the night, so slowly, so slowly, and never getting anywheres. Would those lost baby stars ever get back again to the Milky Way? Of course there were dragons and terrible beasts back of those big trees—beasts like those my father read about in the Bible, full of eyes before and behind—but they could never get by those big giants and creep up to my window.

Of all the books in my father's library, those on the high shelves, books that were never taken down by him, interested me most of all. I was sorry for them. They did wish that somebody wanted them; they were tired of waiting for more attention than being dusted once a year; so I climbed up the shelves one day and brought down two or three and gave them a conspicuous place on father's table (to their great delight). My ready explanation that they wanted to be read again disturbed him greatly, as another alarming proof, as he said, that my falsifying imagination was reaching the stage demanding severe fasting and prayer. "If all of these books could talk," I can still hear him saying, "and if they did talk, as you say they do, wouldn't I hear them?" He burned those I had rescued upon his open fire. Watching the flames, I saw a reproduction of pictures in Foxe's "Book of Martyrs." But I said nothing. Would I never learn to keep my secrets?

"Did you hear the stars singing?" I asked my mother the day after she had rode all night in an open wagon. The look that she gave me precipitated my flight to the garden, where again I forgot myself and asked my sister, who was uprooting bouncing-bet at a great rate, what right she had to do so; didn't she know that bouncing-bet had little children running around the garden? Indeed she did, she said, the strokes she gave to every one in sight bringing tears to my eyes. In the attic was my baby cradle. So heartbreaking was its plea for notice one day that I dragged it out into the full sunshine and filled it with my big family of rag babies and dolls. I was

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rocking it to a soothing lullaby—singing to the cradle, not its contents—when my mother appeared; but I kept my secret. The texts that I was made to memorize daily were of a nature that cultivated in my rebellious soul the conviction that I was a child of wrath: that was why I knew what the birds were singing; what the thunder was growling and roaring; and why nobody but me, seemingly, could see the big black log out in the burned-over clearing twist and squirm like a dragon. My brother Joe never could see that his kite was like an angel with wings. There was a waterfall in the pine woods where I could sit by the hour and hear the stories that it told.

It came at last—the culminating episode of the totem stage of my childhood.

It was on a Sabbath morning. The parson and his family were packed into the three-seated wagon and slowly approaching the meeting-house—he lost to everything but the sermon he was turning over in his mind, I close beside him, as always. It was to be an important sermon. The cholera had broken out in Montreal; ours was a northern "up York State town;" he must warn the sinners of his little flock of the danger they were in. We were passing the new cemetery, a bare, treeless waste, its first and only grave, a baby's, plainly to be seen from the road—a roughly shaped hillock covered with dead flowers. One long gaze at the desolate little mound, and I broke out: "That little grave is dreadfully lonesome. It wants more graves, ever so many, close by it. I wish more graves could be made beside it right away. Poor little grave!" My mother's hand on my mouth silenced me; my father's face was stern and solemn as he lifted me to the meeting-house steps, saying, as if warning me of punishment: "Listen to every word of my sermon this morning, my child; it will be for you." And I did not miss a single word of that dreadful sermon, hidden, as I tried to keep, under my mother's shawl. Vial after vial of divine wrath was poured upon the heads of liars; upon those of little children who, as it was made plain, often became the adopted children of the father of lies through love of indulgence in sinful imaginations. That I was chief among the host described I firmly believed, and that the cholera was coming for the likes of me.

Digging up the ashes of my demolished totems, my father's old journal gave me the text of that morning sermon: "Take heed that your heart be not deceived and ye turn aside after other gods," with the following note appended:

"A sermon preached on the Sunday after hearing that the cholera had broken out in Montreal, and that it might soon appear in our section. My exhortation to the unprepared for sudden death made a deep impression; my little daughter, whose tendency to indulge in vain illusions has alarmed me, deeply impressed and benefited."

That afternoon my father, leading me by the hand, entered into his closet and shut to the door. It was a long and painful session; and before it ended I had solemnly vowed upon my knees never more to follow nor be led by the make-believes of my sinful nature. Selah!

"Perhaps," wrote Victor Hugo, "I am the tadpole of an archangel."

"Perhaps," some of us may be saying after digging among the ashes of our totems, "I am the tadpole of a poet, a case of arrested development, through mistakes made in my religious training as a little child, or through mistakes in my general education," in systems based, like Gradgrind's, upon "facts, nothing but facts," with hopeless atrophy of the imagination as a pretty sure result—and this explains, possibly, why poets are not as plentiful as our magazine editors, at least, wish they were. Kingsley once wrote to a friend, "I have laid a poem, but it won't hatch." Alas that so many of us cannot even produce the poem that won't hatch! "Or make the fine jump," added the comrade raking totem ashes with me of late, "that crippled tadpoles of poets must be inspired occasionally to make, clear and free from humdrum fact to the heights of poesy." The personal reminiscences of this comrade as an imaginative Quaker boy, attending Quaker meetings in the Quaker garb he hated, surpass in interest entirely these of my experience as a child born reasonably near the gates, if not within the walls, of orthodoxy; and

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that he shall write them some day as a warning to pious parents (a style of exhortative literature once in demand) I am resolved upon. Warnings often warn where least expected, and fall unheeded by those for whom they were especially intended—like "Robinson Crusoe," written as a warning for the impenitent, and never, never for the delectation of adventure-loving boys.

THE HOME LIFE OF WORKING-GIRLS

BY MRS. NEWELL DWIGHT HILLIS

THE woman accepted generally as a type of the "new woman" is the educated, self-supporting, or up-to-date woman, who is much in evidence and capable of making her influence felt; but there is a very large class of "new women" which has been developed by the new conditions—a class daily growing larger, though, unfortunately, just because of numbers, becoming more and more inconspicuous, and taken as a matter of course. This is the class of workers—wage-earners in factory, shop, or laundry—the great class of unskilled laborers who, because of their lack of training and because of their sex, are the recipients of what is barely a living wage. In the city of Brooklyn alone there are 120,000 women who are wage-earners reported in the last Census, and the number is constantly increasing. Jane Addams says: "Never before in civilization have such numbers of young girls been suddenly released from the protection of the home and permitted to walk unattended upon the city streets, and to work under alien roofs; for the first time they are being prized more for their labor power than for their innocence, their tender beauty, their ephemeral gayety. Society cares more for the products they manufacture than for their immemorial ability to reaffirm the charm of existence."

The large majority of these girls are from fourteen to twenty-five years of age, since many of them marry by the time they are twenty-five, and changes in circumstances still further reduce the number, so the class over twenty-five years, and particularly over thirty years, is very much smaller.

Of this large number nearly nine-tenths live at home, which would seem to be the ideal place for them to be, and, so far as they individually are concerned, often is the best place for them to be; but the very fact of their being there, and that they are usually given their board and lodging, is the most serious feature of the problem presented to the girl who has no home, or who must leave her home and become entirely self-supporting. It is the direct cause of the insufficient wage-average for the young, unskilled worker—about five dollars a week, which is considerably less than a living wage. The average woman worker of our country receives less than $270, and this is very largely caused by the entrance into the competition for place of young girls of fourteen to sixteen years of age who have board and lodging provided for them by their own people, and who are too young and inexperienced to realize that by accepting such remuneration they are imperiling both their own future and the future, physical, social, and moral, of thousands of other girls.

One can hardly blame the overworked and ignorant mothers who see in the possibility of a few dollars a week added to the weekly stipend a coveted and needed relief. Theirs is a narrow world, with the individual experience the chief factor in making up their view of life, and it is not to be wondered at that it is short-sighted.

But what about the other girls who have not the protection of a home or the chaperonage of even an ignorant mother? If they are entirely self-dependent, they must accept what stipend they can get. Employers who are running their business, not for love, but for the financial gain that can be had from it, are not to be expected to pick the girl who has no one

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to help her and offer her a wage higher than her competitor. As one manufacturer frankly admitted, "We do not pay as much as we could pay, or as much as girls who are self-dependent ought to have, because there are plenty who will come for less." This means that the self-dependent girl must cut her expenses to the lowest possible figure. She must rent the cheapest room she can find, which necessitates her going to a house where the overworked landlady has utilized every possible space for lodgers, so that the girl is confined strictly to her little hall bedroom, insufficiently heated and lighted; the bedding has probably served one generation, and is hard and dirty from long use. The landlady forbids light housekeeping as a usual thing, because this lessens her own chance for gain in board, and she, too, needs all she can get. The laundry bills must be kept down, so one towel must serve the user for a week, and a change of bed linen in these houses is made once in two weeks. The bedding is rarely sufficient for warmth in cold weather if a window is opened. Anæmia results quite as much from impure air as from insufficient food. It is simply another form of starvation, by which consequences are less rapid but more serious.

The question of food is quite as discouraging. A breakfast of coffee or tea and rolls may be quite sufficient and to be recommended to the late riser in a comfortable home, who will have a dainty lunch in a few hours and an altogether too hearty and rich dinner at the close of the day; but it is another matter for the girl who lunches at a cafeteria, or even a push-cart, and possibly dines "with anybody who asks me."

Yet this is the sort of life open to the young, inexperienced women workers of our country, one-half of whom are under twenty-one years of age. Is it any wonder that we are hearing of "outbreaks of crime" and "white slavery," such evils as are the direct result of the present system of labor in our overcrowded, underfed working classes in our big cities.

Shop-girls are more exposed to dangers than are girls who work in factories. In the first place, they have spread before them the things which are most tempting to the feminine mind, and shop-girls are just as normal in their susceptibility to such attractions as are other girls. They see before them also a continual procession of women who have and use the same things which appeal to them. They see for themselves that pretty clothes make even a pretty face more attractive, and they want them just as much as other girls do. But five dollars a week, after the scantiest board is paid and the cheapest room rented and perhaps shared with another, leaves little margin for dress, particularly if sixty cents a week must be spent in carfare. Moreover, if her dress and appearance are below a certain standard, she is likely to lose her place. Clothing cannot be chosen wisely under these circumstances. There is never enough money ahead to make really economical buying possible. This means cheap shoes, which are bought even though the shortness of their wear makes the annual shoe bill larger than if better goods could have been purchased. The same thing is true of the entire wardrobe, and shoddiness and unsuitability are the result, unless—

But temptation does not stop with the love of dress or of food. There is a craving in the heart of all young life for pleasure and entertainment, and where is this to be had? The commercial spirit will provide for this if it is not otherwise provided for. The girl cannot entertain friends in her own home, there is no place; so she seeks the streets or the cheap entertainment, the moving-picture shows, the vaudeville, the cheap theater, or the wholesome entertainment provided by Settlements and by Young Women's Christian Associations, just as she chances to find her way. Our periodicals are full of the dangers of the picture shows and the cheap theaters, so there is hope of their restriction. The question of the dance-hall is not yet solved, though here, too, there is progress.

Possibly the very best solution of the problem—outside of some regulation which shall provide a proper wage—is the wide and varied provision made for the care and entertainment and education of girls by the Young Women's Christian Associations. In the matter of education, fitting for more lucrative positions, almost every line of work is taught by the modern city Christian Association. Hundreds of girls receive training which lifts them out

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of the class of untrained laborers into positions which are adequately self-supporting. But, while the work of education is important, the meeting of the wants of the social nature is quite as needful, possibly more insistent with the younger girls; and still larger and greater is that work which provides for the whole nature, which gives at the same time a home, with all that it signifies of shelter, food, care, and companionship to these young girls who are so exposed to temptation or to suffering. Whatever saves the downfall of a girl not only preserves her happiness and self-respect, but saves the State from actual waste and expenditure. It is no wild dream to say that, from an economical view-point alone, our great cities could better afford to build and equip boarding homes for working-girls, which should supply them with proper environment and chaperonage, than to leave them exposed to temptation or to disease and then pay the costs of their downfall in hospital, asylum, or other institution.

Since this at present is not provided for by municipal resources, it falls to the duty of men and women, especially to women, to make suitable provision for these girls who are young and alone to-day, but who in a not far distant future will be the mothers of many of our own citizens. What kind of citizens these shall be depends very greatly on what kind of mothers rear them.

Many of these girls come from the country or from smaller towns where the opportunities for self-support are few. It is an easy thing to say, "They should not be here," but it often means their only chance for self-support. Moreover, there are the same reasons for their being here, the same attractions of opportunities, of amusement, of the whirl and charm of life, as draw the young men, and no one wonders at or blames the young men for coming—and why should they not come, since the wheel turns round at least once in a generation and brings to the front ranks these self-same men? If the opportunities are not as great for girls, at least the attractions are. Very much of the pleasure, the ease, and the freedom of the women of the wealthiest classes depend upon these very girls. It is because they are in our cities, in our factories, and in our shops that women do not have to make their own clothes, or do at least part of their own cooking. The little adornments of house and clothing come from the hands of these same girls. Is not "turn about fair play"? and should not some service be rendered where much service is received?

It is perfectly possible to make life easier and happier and less dangerous for these girls. By carrying over a little of the luxury and culture and making possible a home and home care, companionship, and comfort for the girls who cannot win it for themselves, a large part of the dangers would be removed. Young girls do not choose the lower places of entertainment because they prefer them, but because these places are cheap; because they afford companionship and entertainment for a price within their reach, and they do not know for what they stand. At the end of a long day of dreary, uninteresting work, the normal girl craves amusement. Jane Addams says: "Perhaps never before have young people been expected to work from motives so detached from direct emotional incentive. Never has the age of marriage been so long delayed; never has the work of youth been so separated from the family life and the public opinion of the community." It is not strange that our daily papers are filled with accounts of tragedies which blast the future of young girls—mere children frequently. It is not possible to walk the streets after nightfall and fail to see the pitfalls and possibilities which fill the spectator with terror, and which make him shudder at the knowledge of what will some day send the arrow to the heart of the mothers of these girls. The Chicago Commission on Vice, consisting of thirty prominent men appointed by the Mayor last July, reports five thousand women consumed annually by Chicago's social evil, hundreds of them being girls from the country, and yet the report claims that Chicago is a better city morally than most of the world's great cities.

It is perfectly possible to make the danger less acute. The Young Women's Christian Association, the King's Daughters, and various other societies have made a beginning, but the beginning is small—a few hundreds cared for and thousands let alone.

In our great, fascinating, bewildering

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cities a young girl alone is like a canoe in the rapids, and yet every year the number coming to our cities is greater. It is the obligation of the independent women, those who have homes and those who have means, to make safe and comfortable the women and girls who must live in the city because it is here they can find occupation, but to whom the city means hardship and privation and danger. The city has enough for all. It is the center towards which supplies of every kind pour in. There are enough women who wish to meet their obligations to at least better the conditions. A way should be worked out, or the present ways enlarged, by which resources and needs are brought together. No city can afford to sacrifice the health, usefulness, and honor of its future citizens. The great land of India, teeming with tropical profusion of flower and fruit, and inhabited by people of the same race stock as ourselves, is a subject race to-day because its mothers had not enough of strength—physical, mental, or moral—to impart to their sons. They are the illustration worked out to its ultimate conclusion. It is a far cry from the women of India to the women of America. Let it also be a far cry from the results of their oppression to the results of our neglect.

LIFE AND LABOR ON THE CONTINENT

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

AUTHOR OF "UP FROM SLAVERY," "THE STORY OF THE NEGRO," ETC.

THE SECOND ARTICLE IN THE SERIES CALLED "THE MAN FARTHEST DOWN"

ONE clear, cold morning, about the first of September, I took a train at Bonar Bridge, in the north of Scotland, southward bound. There was a cold wind blowing, and Bonar Bridge is about the latitude, as I learned from looking at my atlas, of northern Labrador—farther north, in fact, than I had ever in my lifetime dreamed of going.

I spent the next four or five hours looking out of a car window across the bleak, brown moors, studying the flocks of sheep and the little thatch-roofed cottages clinging to the lonesome hillsides.

Three days later I was in the beautiful mountain region below Dresden, on my way to Prague, the capital of Bohemia. In many ways conditions in the farming regions of Bohemia are quite as primitive as they are among the crofters of northern Scotland. There are, for example, a larger number of small farmers owning their own land in Bohemia than there are in Scotland, but the Scottish crofter, although he remains a tenant on a small estate, has, at the present time, a more secure position on the soil than the man who rents his land in Bohemia. In other respects the Scotch Highlanders, whose country I had just left, and the Czechs, whose country I was just entering, are, I should say, about as different as one could well imagine.

Among other things I noticed that the farming people in this part of the world do not live apart, scattered about in the open country, as they do in Scotland, and as is the case everywhere in America. On the contrary, the Bohemian farmers live huddled together in little villages, in the center of the surrounding fields, from which they go out to their work in the morning and to which they return in the evening.

These different manners of settling on the soil are one of the marks by which the people in the north of Europe are distinguished from those in the south. The northern people settle in widely scattered homesteads, while the southern people invariably herd together in little villages, and each individual becomes, to a great extent, dependent upon the community and loses himself in the life about him. This accounts, in large measure, for the difference

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in character of the northern and southern people. In the north the people are more independent; in the south they are more social. The northern people have more initiative; they are natural pioneers. The southern people are more docile, and get on better under the restraints and restrictions of city life. It is said, also, that this explains why it is that the people who are now coming to America from the south of Europe, although most of them come from the land, do not go out into the country districts in America, but prefer to live in the cities, or, as seems to be the case with the Italians, colonize the suburbs of the great cities.

Another thing that interested me was the sight of women working on the land. I had not gone far on my way south from Berlin before my attention was attracted by the number of women in the fields. As I proceeded southward, the number of these women laborers steadily increased until they equaled and even outnumbered the men. One of these I had an opportunity to see close at hand; she was coarsely clad, barefoot, and carried a rake over her shoulder. I had seen pictures of something like that before, but never the real thing.

Outside of Italy I have rarely seen men going barefoot either in the country or in the city, but in southern Europe it seems to be the custom among the working women, and I took it as an indication of the lower position which women occupy among the people of southern Europe as compared with the position that they occupy in America. I saw many barefoot women later in the course of my journey, both in the field and elsewhere. I confess, however, I was surprised to meet in Vienna, Austria, as I did on several occasions while I was there, women walking barefoot on the pavements in one of the most fashionable streets of the city. One day, in speaking to a native Austrian, I expressed my surprise at what I had seen. "Oh, well," he replied, "they are Slovaks."

How vividly this reminded me of a parallel remark with which I was familiar, "Oh, well, they are Negroes!"

It was the tone of this reply that caught my attention. It emphasized what I soon discovered to be another distinguishing feature of life in southern Europe. Everywhere I went in Austria and Hungary I found the people divided according to the race to which they belonged. There was one race at the top, another at the bottom, and then there were perhaps two or three other races which occupied positions relatively higher or lower in between. In most cases it was some section of the Slavic race, of which there are some five or six different branches in the Austrian Empire, which was at the bottom.

Several times, in my efforts to find out something about these so-called "inferior people," I made inquiries about them among their more successful neighbors. In almost every case, no matter what race it happened to be to which I referred, I received the same answer. I was told that they were lazy and would not work; that they had no initiative; that they were immoral and not fitted to govern themselves. At the same time, I found them doing nearly all the really hard, disagreeable, and ill-paid labor that was being done. Usually I found, also, that, with fewer opportunities than the people around them, they were making progress.

I was frequently surprised at the bitterness between the races. I have heard people talk more violently, but I do not think I have heard any one say anything worse in regard to the Negro than some of the statements that are made by members of one race in Austria in regard to members of some other.

I reached the city of Prague late at night, and awoke next morning in a world that was utterly new to me. It was not that Prague looked so different from other European cities I had seen, but the language sounded more strange than anything else I had ever heard. I do not pretend to understand German, yet it seemed to me that there was something familiar and friendly about that language as compared with Czech.

The Czechs are but one of the seventeen races of Austria-Hungary, each one of which, with the exception of the Jews, who are an exception to everything, is seeking to preserve its own language, and, if possible, compel all its neighbors to learn it. Preserving its own language is not difficult in the country districts, where each race lives apart in its own village and maintains its own peculiar customs and

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traditions. It is more difficult in the large cities, like Vienna and Budapest, where the different nationalities come in intimate contact with each other and with the larger European world.

There is a region in northeastern Hungary where in the course of a day's ride one may pass through, one after another, villages inhabited by as many as five different races—Ruthenians, Jews, Rumanians, Hungarians, and Germans. A racial map of the dual Empire shows districts in which the bulk of the inhabitants are of one race, dotted with villages in which the fragments of other races still survive, some of them, like the Turks, so few in number that they are not separately counted as part of the population. Under these circumstances travel in this part of the world is made interesting but not easy.

Fortunately, I had letters of introduction to Dr. Albert W. Clarke, head of the Austrian branch of the American Board of Missions at Prague, and he introduced me to some of his native assistants who spoke English, and kindly assisted me in finding what I most desired to see of the city and the people. Through him I had an opportunity to get inside of some of the tenements in which European people live, and to see some of the working people in their homes. I did not have an opportunity to explore the parts of the city in which the very poor people live; in fact, I was told that there was nothing in Prague that corresponds to the slums of our English and American cities. There is much poverty, but it is poverty of a self-respecting sort—not of those who have been defeated and gone under, but of those who have never got up.

I found the average Bohemian workman living in two rooms and working for wages considerably less than the same kind of labor would have brought in England, and very much less than the same kind of labor would have brought in America. There is, however, very little use in comparing the wages that men earn unless you are able to compare all the surrounding conditions.

During my stay in Prague I had an opportunity to see something close at hand of the life of the farming population. Under the guidance of one of Dr. Clarke's assistants I drove out one day to a little village where there were a number of people who had come under the influence of the American Mission in Prague, and where I was assured I should find a welcome.

It was not, perhaps, the best place to get an idea of what is most characteristic in Bohemian country life. I had hoped to see something of the local customs of the country people; but, though it was a holiday when I made my visit, I did not see a single peasant costume.

There are still many places in Bohemia, I understand, where the people take pride in wearing the national costumes, and there are still many parts of the Austrian Empire where relics of the older civilization linger. Indeed, I heard of places where, it is said, the peasants are still paying the old feudal dues; in other places the old unfree condition of the peasants is still continued in the form of peonage, as it may still be sometimes found in our Southern States. In this case the peasants have got themselves into debt for land. They are not allowed to work off this debt, and this serves as a pretense for keeping them bound to the soil. But education and the growth of manufacturing industries have banished the traces of the older civilization from the greater part of Bohemia.

In the village which I visited, as in most of the farming villages in this part of the world, the houses of the farmers stand in a row quite close together on either side of the street. In the rear are the quarters of the servants, the storehouses and the stables, the pig-sty and the cow-stalls, all closely connected, so that it was often a little uncertain to me where the quarters for the servants left off and those for the animals began. In fact, in some places no very definite distinction was made.

One of the most interesting places that I visited during my stay in this village was a dairy farm which was conducted by a Jew. He was evidently one of those of the lower or middle class—a type one hears much of in Europe—who, with very little knowledge or skill in the actual work of agriculture, have succeeded by their superior business skill in getting possession of the land, and reducing the

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peasant to a position not much better than that of a serf. This man not only kept a dairy farm, but he operated two or three brick-yards besides, and had other extensive business interests in the village. Although he was a man of wealth and intelligence, he had his dwelling in the midst of a compound around which were grouped houses for his laborers, cow-stalls, a wheelwright and blacksmith shop, places for pigs, chickens, and dogs, the whole in a condition of indescribable disorder and filth.

The greater part of the work on the farm seemed to be done by women, most of whom were barefooted or wore wooden shoes. I do not think I had seen any one wearing wooden shoes before since the days of slavery. They had remained in my mind as the symbol of poverty and degradation; but they are worn everywhere in country districts in Europe. In fact, I remember in one instance, when I visited an agricultural school, finding one of the teachers working in the garden wearing wooden shoes. The people who worked on this farm all lived, as far as I could see, in one little ill-smelling and filthy room. There was no sign in the homes which I visited of those household industries for which Hungarian peasants are noted, and which should help to brighten and make comfortable the simplest home.

I believe there are few plantations in our Southern States where, even in the small one-room cabins, one would not find the colored people living in more real comfort and more cleanliness than was the case here. Even in the poorest Negro cabins in the South I have found evidences that the floor was sometimes scrubbed, and usually there was a white counterpane on the bed or some evidence of an effort to be tidy.

Prague is one of the most ancient cities in Europe. A thing that impressed me with the antiquity of the town was the fact that before the beginning of the Christian era there was a Jewish quarter in this city. Prague is also one of the most modern cities in Europe. Within a comparatively few years large manufacturing plants have multiplied throughout the country. Bohemia makes, among other things, fezzes, and sells them to Turkey; raises beans, and ships them to Boston.

What is most interesting is the fact that this progress has been, to a very large extent, made possible through the education of the masses of the people. The Bohemians are to-day among the best educated people in Europe. For example, among the immigrants who come from Europe to America, 24.2 per cent over fourteen years of age are unable to read and write. In the case of the German immigrant not more than 5.8 per cent are unable to read or write. In the case of the Bohemians this percentage is only 3 per cent. There is only one class of immigrants among whom the percentage of illiteracy is lower. Among the Danish immigrants it is 0.8 per cent.

There is no part of the Austrian Empire where education is more generally diffused or where the schools are so well adapted to the actual needs of the people. In addition to the ordinary primary schools and the gymnasia (which correspond to our high school) there are several higher institutes of technology which prepare students for industry and commerce. Besides these State schools, there are a large number of industrial schools that are maintained by cities or by private associations. Some of these are located in the small towns and are closely connected with the local industries. Sometimes they are organized by the members of the different trades and crafts as a supplement to the apprentice system. For example, in a town where the inhabitants are engaged in the clay industry, there will be found schools which give practical courses in the making of vases and crockery. In some of the larger towns commercial and industrial instruction is given in "continuation schools." In these schools girls who have learned needlework in the elementary schools will be taught sewing, dressmaking, and embroidery and lace work. There are also courses in which boys are prepared to work in the sugar-making, brewing, watchmaking, and other manufacturing industries.

In the two institutes of technology in Prague, one of which is for Bohemians and the other for Germans, courses are given which prepare students to be engineers, chemists, machinists, architects, bookkeepers, etc. In connection with these courses there are also special de-

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partments where students are prepared to be master workmen in such trades as brick-laying, carpentry, cabinet-making, and stone masonry.

There is much in the life and history of the Bohemian people that is especially interesting to a race or a people, like the Negro, that is itself struggling up to a higher and freer level of life and civilization.

Up to 1848 the masses of the Bohemian people were held in a condition of serfdom. Until 1867 they were not allowed to emigrate from the country, and were thus held, as are the Russian peasants to-day, to a certain degree, prisoners in their own country. Most of the land was in the hands of the nobility, who were the descendants of foreigners who came into the country when it was conquered, a century or more before. Even to-day, five families own eight per cent of all the land in the kingdom, and one-tenth of the population own thirty-six per cent of the area of the country. The Emperor and the Catholic Church are also large landowners.

One of the effects of this new education and the new life that has come with it has been to make the land held in larger estates less productive than that which is divided into smaller holdings and cultivated by the men who own it.

It was interesting to me to learn that the Bohemians in their own country suffer from some of the same disadvantages as the Negro in the South. For example, the educational fund is divided between the races—the Germans and the Czechs—just as the money for education is divided in the South between the whites and the blacks, but, as is true in the South, it is not divided equally between the races.

For example, in the city of Prague there is one gymnasium (school) to every 62,000 Czech inhabitants, while the Germans have one gymnasium for every 6,700 inhabitants. Of what are called the real-schools, in which the education is more practical than that of the gymnasia, there is one for every 62,000 Bohemian inhabitants, while the Germans have one for every 10,000 inhabitants. For a number of years past, although the Bohemians represent seventy per cent of the population, they have received only a little more than one-half of the money appropriated for secondary education, both in the gymnasia and the real-schools. The salaries of teachers in the elementary schools range from $155 to $400 per year; in the schools in which the German language is taught, however, teachers receive an added bonus for their services.

To overcome their disadvantages in this direction the Czechs have supplemented the work of the public schools by industrial schools, which are maintained by the contributions of the people in the same way that the Negroes in many parts of the South have supplemented the work of the public schools in order to increase the terms of the school year and to introduce industrial training of various sorts.

More than this, the masses of the people in Bohemia are limited and restricted in all their movements in ways of which no one in America who has not passed through the hands of the immigration inspectors at Ellis Island has any comprehension. For example, the people of Austria have had for a number of years freedom of conscience, and, in theory at least, every one is allowed to worship according to his own inclination and convictions. Nevertheless, it seems to be as much a crime in Austria to say anything that could be construed as disrespectful to the Catholic Church as it would be to insult the name of the Emperor. I heard a story of a woman who ran a small store in which she was using copies of a Catholic newspaper with which to wrap up articles which she had sold to her customers. She was warned by the police that if she continued to use this paper for that purpose she would be liable to arrest. Afterwards packages were found in her store which were wrapped in this paper; she was arrested and the case was carried to the highest court, but the sentence which had been imposed upon her stood, and she was compelled to serve a term in prison as punishment for this offense. It was only with the greatest difficulty, Dr. Clarke informed me, that he succeeded in getting permission from the Government to establish a branch of the Young Men's Christian Association in Prague.

I myself had some experience of these restrictions when I spoke before an audience composed largely of young Bohemian workmen in the rooms of this same

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Young Men's Christian Association. In order that I might be permitted to make this address it was necessary to announce the subject to the officers of the Government three days before I arrived in the city, and at the meeting I had the unusual experience of having my words taken down by a Government official who was present to see that I did not say anything that would disturb the public peace.

Not knowing what else I could say to this audience that would interest them, I told briefly the story of my own life and of the work that we are trying to do for our students at Tuskegee. I told them also that the institution (Hampton Institute) in which I had gained my education had been established by the same American Board of Missions which was responsible for the existence of the Young Men's Christian Association in Bohemia.

In order that my hearers might understand what I said, it was necessary for the secretary of the Association, a Bohemian who spoke very good English, to translate my words sentence by sentence. In spite of these difficulties, I do not think I ever spoke to an audience of laboring people who were more intelligent or more appreciative. It was a great pleasure and satisfaction to me to be able to speak to this audience. I felt, as I think they did, that we had something in common which others, perhaps, could not entirely understand, because each of us belonged to a race which, however different in other respects, was the same in this, that it was struggling upward.

THE NEW BOOKS

From Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer we may naturally expect "Memories and Impressions" of a somewhat pre-Raphaelite flavor, tempered by the modernism of our own day. And in his just-published book under the above title we do get this sort of thing, as he discusses his grandfather (Ford Madox Brown), the Rossettis, Millais, Hunt, Ruskin, Burne-Jones, and William Morris. We are also interestingly informed concerning other worthies—Carlyle, Flaubert, Liszt, Joachim, Jerrold, Swinburne, Whistler, and Thomas Hardy—certainly a picturesque jumble of names. The book is worth reading, but, vivacious as is the author, his book would have been more readable had he condensed some of his own cogitations. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

Among all the publications occasioned by the tercentenary of the so-called Authorized Version of the Bible the palm must be given to the "Records of the English Bible" in the documents relating to its translation and publication in English from 1525 to 1611. These have been critically edited by Mr. Alfred W. Pollard, writer of the Bibliographical Introduction to the Oxford University reprints of the Bible of 1611. They constitute a source-book for the history which he gives in their Introduction—a history which goes back to the beginning made in 1382 by several individuals, Wyclif's disciples, whose work has been ascribed to Wyclif himself. Of these documents, sixty-three in all, the earliest is the prohibition by the Provincial Council at Oxford in 1408 of unauthorized translations of the Bible; the latest is the Preface to the version of 1611, all in the unstandardized orthography of their time. They are full of human interest in the glimpses they give of the characters and motives of many who participated in the century of struggle over "the great question as to what Bible the English people should be allowed to read." The glory of producing it belongs to William Tyndale, martyred for it in 1530, more than to any other one man. His work, says Mr. Pollard, "fixed once for all the style and tone of the English Bible," and "subsequent versions must be looked upon as revisions of his, not as independent translations." About two-fifths of these documents relate to Tyndale, his work, and his adversaries. Henry's royal proclamation, Tyndale's terms of submission, and two contemporaneous critiques of his translation are of special interest among these, together with the King's proclamation, eleven years after Tyndale's death, fulfilling the martyr's great endeavor by ordering the English Bible to be set up in churches. (Oxford University Press, New York. $2.)

From the point of view of the Austrian school of psychology—the school of Sigmund Freud and his followers, who regard all dreams as symbolic of hidden states of consciousness—Mr. Havelock Ellis's essay in dream interpretation, in his "World of Dreams," is a mere scratching of the surface, so to speak. But those psychologists—and they form the great majority—who do not agree with the Freudians in the matter of dream analysis will regard it as an excellent piece of work; while the lay reader will find it not only remarkably informative but thoroughly entertaining. Mr. Ellis confines

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himself almost altogether to a discussion of the commoner types of dream, giving illustrations from his personal experience, utilizing the results of introspection to explain the material out of which dreams are made, and studying carefully the influence exercised in dream formation by, on the one hand, external and internal physical stimuli, and, on the other, the psychological processes of association of ideas, memory, imagination, etc. Perhaps the most important point he stresses —and certainly a point appreciated by comparatively few people—is the fact that dreams invariably involve exercise of the reasoning faculty, since they always represent an attempt on the part of the sleeping consciousness to interpret the physical stimuli which form their starting-points. Thus, certain changes in the respiratory, circulatory, or other processes of the body may make themselves felt in sleep. The sleeping consciousness feels them, but does not recognize their true character. Figuratively speaking, it asks itself, What does this mean? And, by way of answer, it develops a dream of flying, a dream of swimming, or a dream of falling, as the case may be. All dreams, Mr. Ellis believes, involve some initial physical excitation, but this merely occasions them, it does not explain them. The explanation must always be sought in the psychological, not the physiological, domain. The book is well written, abounds in illustrative anecdote, and, since it deals in a helpful way with a subject of universal occurrence and universal interest, it should be widely read. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $2, net.)

Sir Clements Markham has long been recognized by scholars as one of the foremost authorities on the ancient civilization of the Incas, concerning whose history he has contributed greatly to present-day knowledge by his investigations in Peru and by the documentary treasures which he has unearthed in the archives of Spain and other countries and given to the English-speaking world in careful translations. Now, after more than half a century of research, he sums up, in a volume addressed to the general reader even more than to the scholar, and entitled "The Incas of Peru," the results of his studies in the history, government, and customs and manners of the peoples over whom the Incas ruled. Himself a profound admirer of Prescott—whom he numbered among his friends—Sir Clements Markham finds reason to differ with his predecessor, as with other eminent writers, on some important points; but nowhere is his book marred by controversial discussion. Its range may be indicated by a few chapter titles: "Rise of the Incas," "Religion of the Incas," "The Inca Calendar, Festivals, and Dress," "Language and Literature of the Incas," "Condition of the People." In the last-mentioned chapter the important subject of the Inca form of government is ably discussed, Sir Clements Markham describing it as "a socialism such as dreamers in past ages have conceived, and impractical theorists now talk about. It existed once because the essential conditions were combined in a way which is never likely to occur again. These are an inexorable despotism, absolute exemption from outside interference of any kind, a very peculiar and remarkable people in an early stage of civilization, and an extraordinary combination of skillful statesmanship." This statement of a thoughtful man's views of the "essential conditions" of practical Socialism is well worth noting by Socialist extremists. Most decidedly Sir Clements Markham is a fervent admirer of the Incas, at times, perhaps, to the extent of allowing his admiration to outrun his historical judgment. But no one can read his interesting pages without sharing his enthusiasm in some degree; and, moreover, many are certain to rise from his book with a lively desire to see for themselves the ruins, monuments, and scenic beauties which he graphically describes, and many of which are reproduced in miniature in the illustrations of his volume. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3, net.)

In "The Lighter Side of My Official Life" Sir Robert Anderson has furnished readers of all kinds with interesting reading. This is an autobiographical sketch to interest, first of all, the youth bred on "detective stories." For Sir Robert tells in a very frank way about the English detective service in general, and about its connection with Ireland in particular. As an Irishman himself, Sir Robert has occupied a peculiarly notable position in this respect. He draws aside the curtain from much which has hitherto been hidden from the ordinary man. While the book is not a very serious contribution to biographical literature, it certainly emphasizes interestingly "the lighter side" of official life. (Hodder & Stoughton, New York. $3.50.)

The most obvious claim of Mason Locke Weems to the attention of American children is the fact that on his authority rests that immortal hero tale—the story of George Washington and the cherry tree. In 1800 Weems brought out his "Life of Washington," his best-known contribution to the literature of his period. From this date until the Civil War his works were published and republished with a frequency apparently paralleled only by the many issues of the modern "best sellers." In the "Cyclopædia of American Literature" Mr. Duyckinck calls Weems "the Livy of the American people." This designation, thinks Mr. Wroth in his "Parson Weems," errs in its exclusiveness, for Weems was nearly as much appreciated by the upper classes of society as he was by the mechanic and the plow-boy. During thirty years there was probably no more familiar figure on the roads of the South than Weems, the book peddler and author, who, with horse and wagon, wares and fiddle, traveled many miles year

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after year, sleeping in some wayside inn or farm-house or in the open, and learning some new road lore with each passing day. As Weems's life has never been adequately written, Mr. Wroth attempts to do justice to an interesting man, and the attempt has resulted in an attractive biographical and critical study. (The Eichelberger Book Company, Baltimore, Maryland.)

A young man just from college entered a coal mine as a laborer. He worked precisely as other miners do, had his full share in the toil, and was a witness of a horrible disaster and one of those who first entered the mine after the tragedy. He tells of the work in the underground city, the miners' tricks and superstitions, describes the ever-present dangers, and makes the reader see for himself what a coal mine is. Mr. Joseph Husband in his "Year in a Coal Mine" combines in an unusual way exact narration and vividness of style. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.20.)

The author of "A Woman's Hardy Garden" always claims the attention of those who want to know how to deal sensibly and with taste in the matter of garden planting and arrangement. The new book by Helena R. Ely is called "The Practical Flower Garden," is adorned with some very charming pictures of gardens in color and in black and white, and is particularly good in its advice about the color arrangements of flowers, while many practical matters are put simply and clearly. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.)

Among the books of travel which have appeared this spring is the very attractively made "The Ideal Italian Tour," by Henry James Forman, whose well-illustrated book "In the Footprints of Heine" will be remembered by many readers of The Outlook. The tour which Mr. Forman describes extends from Salermo and Amalfi to the Italian Lakes, and this work is planned as a readable guide-book to this journey through many of the most characteristic and interesting parts of Italy. The style is not specially engaging, nor are the reflections original; but a great deal of material valuable for the informing of the tourist has been collected and put between the covers of a well-printed and handsomely bound volume of very moderate compass. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.50.)

A work of challenging interest is Mary Innes's "Schools of Painting." An American edition of it has now appeared, edited by Charles de Kay. He also contributes much additional material, including a chapter on schools of painting in America; indeed, the present edition is chiefly interesting because of Mr. de Kay's contributions, especially his references to pictures in American public and private galleries. Helpful as are Miss Innes's indications of the characteristics of one school of painting as contrasted with another, these indications have, after all, a particular and final interest when we contrast the works of the American Sargent or Whistler with similar works by the Spaniards, Velasquez, Greco, or Goya, for instance. To some critics the book, as a whole, may not seem exhaustive enough. But of course no book or set of books could quite do justice to the enormous embarrassment of riches in the domain of painting. Doubtless realizing this, the author of "Schools of Painting" has not endeavored to present a complete history of art; instead, she does for the student what ought to be of more immediate practical value to him, that is, she deals only with notable periods of painting. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.)

"An Epitomized China" might well have been the title of Mr. R. F. Johnston's "Lion and Dragon in Northern China." The Lion is, of course, the British Lion; the Dragon, the Chinese Dragon. Their meeting-place consists of the port and territory of Weihaiwei. Now Weihaiwei is a sort of miniature or epitomized China. As the author hints, a careful study of native life and character as exhibited in the small district of Weihaiwei presents perhaps a clearer and truer insight into the life and character of the Chinese race than we would gain from a superficial study of China as a whole. Thus the value of the present volume is far more than merely local. In addition to what Mr. Johnston tells us about the history, folk-lore, religious practices, and social customs of his district—for he is English District Officer and Magistrate at Weihaiwei—his observations on the position of England in China are timely and noteworthy. As a whole, the book, though fairly full of local color, is almost too voluminous in matter, and in manner sometimes not quite vivid enough to attract the ordinary reader. To the serious student of Chinese problems, however, we earnestly commend it. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $5.)

The veteran English writer S. Baring-Gould continues to show, as he has done for many years, an extraordinary interest in, and a remarkable fund of knowledge about, out-of-the-way matters. He has just published an extensive work on "Cliff Castles and Cave Dwellings of Europe." His treatment includes not only the ancient dwellings of prehistoric man as found in many countries abroad, but also rock hermitages, subterranean churches, robbers' dens among the cliffs, rock monasteries, and cave oracles. Using the term cliff dwelling in this very broad way, subject-matter is certainly not wanting for such a book. There are scores and scores of notable descriptive passages, many drawn from direct personal observation. The interest of curiosity and of strangeness abounds throughout the work. Certainly we agree with Mr. Baring-Gould that few people realize to what extent cliff dwellings still exist in Europe, and there are certain aspects of his subject, such as that

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treated under the title "Modern Troglodytes," which will be especially novel to all readers who have not been students of such topics. As with his earlier writings, the author here again shows the power of graphic narration, and will hold the attention of many who are not archæologists or antiquarians. (The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $3.50.)

Mr. Douglas Sladen is the author of a number of readable books of travel. To them he now adds one on "Oriental Cairo." As its name would indicate, this is not the ordinary book about Cairo. For once, we are glad to say, the reader can do what the Cairene is apt to do—get away from the Europeanized part of the Egyptian capital to the purely Oriental part. Mr. Sladen fully and ably describes Oriental Cairo. Appendices to the text contain valuable tables and lists, an interesting argument showing that Cairo was the real scene of the "Arabian Nights," and a reprint of Colonel Roosevelt's Guildhall speech on Egypt. (The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $5.)

"The Great Texts of the Bible," by Dr. James Hastings, editor of the well-known Dictionary of the Bible, is unsurpassed for quality among works of its kind, and in its projected extent to twenty volumes is beyond anything precisely like it. Its design is to supply preachers with materials for sermons, not with ready-made sermons. "St. Mark," its latest volume, gives over five hundred pages to the full exposition and illustration of but twenty-four texts, with many citations from great preachers and writers. Its availability for the modern preacher is wholly in the spiritual lessons drawn from the selected texts, from which no notice of modern critical difficulties is suffered to divert attention. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.)

"Miss Livingston's Maid," by Mary Dillon, whose "Rose of Old St. Louis" attained great popularity, has some of the elements of a successful semi-historical novel. Washington Irving, the Livingstons, Hamilton, Burr, and other notables of New York in early days all enter into the narrative of the adventures of a young Englishman of title who has been sent to America on his travels to rescue him from a mistaken devotion to a middle-aged actress. There is to be found a good deal of animation, color, and historical atmosphere in this easily flowing romance, although there are some small slips of accuracy here and there. The latter part of the story deals in a sensational and unsatisfactory way with a robbery, a treasure-box, Indians, and a tale of quite unreal villainy, for which neither author nor reader cares much. The love story is pretty. Altogether, the novel, while it will not entirely satisfy the critical, is a readable piece of fiction. (The Century Company, New York. $1.50.)

LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

THE DANBURY HATTERS CASE

We find in your editorial of April 22 a passage concerning the Danbury Hatters Case, which reads as follows:

> The real prosecutors of this suit were not the manufacturers themselves, but the Anti-Boycott Association; and the object of the suit was palpably not primarily to apprehend and punish those individuals who as emissaries used threats in extending the boycott, but to break up the union, or at least weaken it by getting the property of its most efficient and thrifty members.

As Chairman of the General Executive Board of the American Anti-Boycott Association, I desire to correct the erroneous impression conveyed by your article. This Association is composed of public-spirited employers, who are actuated by motives of public good, and do not desire to either break up or weaken unions. On the contrary, the Association is for the purpose of protecting its members and the public from the illegal acts of unions and to defend individual liberty from the assaults of the organized boycott. (See copy of constitution inclosed herewith.) It is believed that the future reputation and success of trade unions depend upon the elimination of all practices which override the rights of others, and that the judiciary must be the final arbiter as to these rights. All cases countenanced by the Association should, therefore, redound to the benefit of organized as well as unorganized labor and the general public.

If you will read the narrative and court evidence of the Loewe case, your sympathy should go out to this much-persecuted man on account of the forces arrayed against him, operating contrary to law. After reorganizing his factory following a malicious strike, the boycott was carried on against him to such effect that he—one of our members—asked this Association to take up his case and protect him from ruin. The attachment by the attorneys on property of individual union members was not made until due warning was given, and with the hope that the members who had such property would bring pressure to bear on their officers, leaders, and agents and make them keep within the law. No exception certainly can be taken to seeking indemnity for Mr. Loewe for losses sustained by this cruel and illegal attack.

This is a civil suit for damages and not a criminal suit for punishment. Neither the Association nor Mr. Loewe could start a criminal suit, as that power lies solely with Government officials. How illogical it is,

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therefore, to draw sinister conclusions from the fact that we selected men of property who could be made to respond for damages, rather than active officers whose means were inadequate and whom we had no power to apprehend and punish.

You did not notice in your article the adoption by the United Hatters of the constitution of the American Federation of Labor, nor the affirmed principle of the American Federation of Labor in its constitution, as evidenced by court record, that their organization regards the boycott as fundamental. The principle of holding their members responsible for the illegal acts of their representatives is not as yet finally settled, as intimated by you.

Referring to your comments on the decision at the close of your article, while The Outlook may differ from our Association and its counsel as to the liability of union members for what their officers did when pursuing constitutionally imposed duties of their office, it has no ground for questioning our motives. Our counsel still believe that the rules underlying the relation of principal and agent in all other business activities apply to trade unions, and we believe that the final decision of this matter by the Supreme Court will uphold our contentions.

It would appear to us that The Outlook should join in urging trade unions not to be negligent in reformation. It is regrettable that a publication of the character you profess to maintain should commit such a blunder.

The members of the American Anti-Boycott Association ask that this correction of your statement as to its purposes be published. CHARLES H. MERRITT.

New York City.

[In the editorial paragraph the term "prosecutors" was unhappily chosen if it gave the impression to any readers that this was a criminal proceeding. We do not believe it did give that impression to any who read the paragraph carefully. The Outlook did not "draw sinister conclusions" or question anybody's motives. The point was simply that this was not in fact, as it was nominally, a contest between a single manufacturing concern and a group of individuals, but a contest between an association of employers and an organized body of wage-earners, and that the employers attacked the union at what they regarded as its most vulnerable spot.—THE EDITORS.]

TWO WAR VETERANS

The Outlook has, I understand, secured a good reputation for the trustworthiness of the information presented in its columns. I am therefore sorry to find that a late number of the magazine contains a statement which is inaccurate in itself and has, it appears, caused annoyance to the person most concerned.

I am still more troubled to admit that the responsibility for this erroneous statement rests with myself. You printed in a late number of The Outlook certain extracts from a report of "Experiences in Virginia Prisons during the Last Year of the War" that I had prepared, under the instructions of the Commander of the New York Commandery of the Loyal Legion, for publication in the next volume of Commandery Reports. In the Outlook article I referred to the escape from Danville in the winter of January, 1865, of two officers, and said that one of the escaping prisoners had succeeded in reaching our lines, but that the other had never been heard of, and had doubtless been lost in the mountains of western North Carolina. The officer in question, Major M. C. Harris (who is, it seems, a regular reader of The Outlook), writes reporting that, so far from having been frozen in the mountains forty-six years ago, he is not only alive, but is engaged with active business responsibilities at Tonganoxie, Kansas. I am, of course, very much pleased to learn that the Major's plucky fight for freedom was crowned with success. The difficulties in making his way from Danville to the Federal lines in midwinter, without shoes or overcoat and with no rations, were many; and the attempt could have succeeded only through a combination of courage, persistency, and good fortune. I have, of course, written my apologies and congratulations to my old comrade. GEORGE HAVEN PUTNAM.

New York City.

FOR MADAME BRESHKOVSKY

Many Americans have written to the undersigned asking how to address magazines and postal cards to the distinguished woman now living in exile. Though under strict police surveillance, Madame Breshkovsky is not imprisoned. She lives in a log hut, where she cares for herself, chiefly from funds sent to her by her friends, though the amount that may thus be sent is limited by the Russian Government. She is allowed to both write and receive letters and reading matter. She says that illustrated books and magazines are especially welcome. She also likes picture postal cards, that she may give them to the little village children. These should have no writing on them, or else letter postage must be paid in sending them. She may be addressed: Madame Catherine Breshkovsky, Kirensk, Irkutsk, Siberia, Asia. ISABEL C. BARROWS.

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NEW YORK

ADIRONDACKS

If you want a camp or cottage on any lake or in any village in the Adirondacks, write for a free illustrated booklet. William F. Roberts, Real Estate Office, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

Furnished Country Home—$100
For **SUMMER 1911.** Beautiful scenery. 5 hours from N. Y. Catskills. 1,537, Outlook.

ON THE HUDSON

"In Beautiful Westchester"

If you are planning a home out of and convenient to the city, 40 minutes by the new electric suburban service of the N. Y. Central, main line, you may be interested in two beautiful solid concrete houses just completed. Eleven and twelve rooms, with many quaint, old-fashioned features; large living-rooms, big old-time fireplaces, beamed ceilings, very large verandas, pergolas, etc. About 3 acres each, with superb river views of close to 30 miles. Elevation is 500 feet above river, overlooking many famous estates.

Or you may be specially interested in a plot of from 2 to 10 acres in such a locality for your own homebuilding. It is part of an estate that a private owner—author—has divided and is selling to people of discrimination who want "something different," to homebuilders, not to speculators. The locality is quietly attracting MANY PEOPLE of literary and artistic callings.

If interested, send for illustrated and historical booklet, "The Home on the Hudson," also for "House Leaflets."

THE KITCHAWAN HILLS ESTATE
Croton-on-the-Hudson, New York

JUST THE FARM YOU ARE LOOKING FOR

For sale cheap, to close an estate. 120 acres, quite level, fine view, trout brook, some wood land, 4 miles from Cherry Valley, N. Y. Hop yard, two barns, good spacious house. Write WENDELL and SPONABLE, Fort Plain, N. Y.

ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN

Comfortably furnished summer cottage, commanding lake and mountain view for miles; front porch 42 feet long; six bedrooms, large living room and fireplace, kitchen, etc.; two acres; pine and fruit trees; boat; filled ice house; easy access; moderate rental. E. B. Booth, 329 Willow St., Richmond Hill, N. Y.

LAKE GEORGE, AT BOLTON

Rent furnished. 16 rooms, improvements; electric light; beach, lawn, shade, garage, ice. HOWE, 35 Nassau St., New York.

Hague, on Lake George Cottage to rent for season. Ten rooms and bath. Stationary tubs. Boat, wood, and ice supplied. Address Mrs. A. D. Miller, 209 W. 97th St., N. Y.

Lake George bungalow and cottages for rent near Glenburnie Inn. Golf, tennis, boating, bathing, etc. Every convenience. W. E. Walton, Glenburnie-on-Lake George, N. Y.

Amagansett by the Sea, L. I. Cottages furnished to rent, beautifully located on high ground overlooking the ocean. Choice cottage sites and large tracts for sale. W. M. TERRY.

Cottages to rent, Lake Awosting, on summit Shawangunk Mountains. Furnished, 13 rooms, bath and toilet, running water, large stone fireplace, spacious piazza, stable. $400. Smiley Brothers, Minnewaska, N. Y.

For Sale Crescent Castle. Beautiful summer home on Lake Keuka; trolley to Penn Yan connects Pennsylvania and New York Central. Write for particulars. F. E Jenkins, Penn Yan, N. Y.

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STATE MINERAL SPRINGS RESERVATION
FINEST CLIMATE IN THE WORLD
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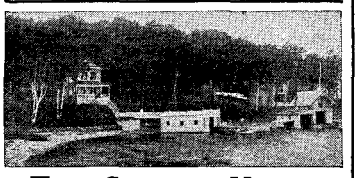
NEW YORK

Shelter Island, Stearns Point Two furnished cottages to rent. Boating, bathing, fishing, golf. Connection with railroad by private launch. Stearns, 45 W. 58th St., N. Y. City.



Two Summer Homes on the St. Lawrence River

One with 11 rooms and bath, ice-house, boat-house, 18-foot gasoline launch, etc. $5,000. One with 11 rooms and bath, boat houses, ice houses, two launches—one 27 feet; acetylene gas lighting, docks, etc. $8,000. These two homes are well arranged, completely furnished and in perfect condition. They could not be rebuilt for $5,000 and $8,000 even without counting the land. Very beautifully situated. Apply to
F. K. F., 702 Fulton St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

"THE UPLANDS" TO RENT
Furnished, fifteen-room house, with four toilets, two baths, open fireplaces, electric lights. Mrs. E. A. ATCHINSON, Stamford, N. Y.

OHIO

OBERLIN, OHIO I have some desirable properties in Oberlin for sale and for rent. Correspondence invited. IRVING W. METCALF.

PENNSYLVANIA

FOR SALE, valuable property, best location in county seat of Wayne, five hours from New York; three lots, large house, all improvements, two baths, steam, electric light. Barn and billiard-room. For further information, apply 2,335, Outlook.

VERMONT

FURNISHED FARM HOUSE to rent. Ten rooms. Spring water, bath, fireplaces, garden, berries, fruit. Write J. F. ALEXANDER, Jr., Saxton's River, Vt.

BOARD AND ROOMS

WANTED, for orphan boy of 12 years, a home in Christian family living in town or village within 50 miles of New York City. Good school must be accessible and charges must be moderate. 5,685, Outlook.

WANTED—A feeble-minded person or invalid to board. 5,715, Outlook.

COMFORTABLE rooms and excellent board during summer near Riverside Drive, Subway, and L. Misses Vanderhoof and Reynolds, 301 W. 77th St., New York.

WANTED—Good home in private family for feeble-minded old gentleman. Flatbush or Long Island preferred. Clark, 15 Clark St., Brooklyn.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

SAFE investment and desirable position. Capable man or woman, with $15,000 cash capital, can identify himself with a thoroughly established, successful, growing corporation, located in Massachusetts. The applicant must be above reproach, energetic, and understand double-entry bookkeeping, and able to fill a responsible position. Investment fully secured. No information given except to principals at interview, after mutually satisfactory references have been exchanged. Address 5,700, Outlook.

FOR Sale—A well known private school for girls, situated in the Middle West, for sale at reasonable price. Full equipment for student body of over a hundred day and boarding pupils; reputation earned in a history of many years; right of certification to Vassar, Smith, and Wellesley; interested body of alumnæ. Correspondence confidential. For information address 5,663, Outlook.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

BUSINESS letters ever self-respecting, often distinctly pertinent, not always dull. Francis I. Maule, 411 Sansom St., Philadelphia.

FOR sale—A girls' boarding and day school in a large Middle Western city. About twenty years old. Widely and favorably known. Excellent reputation for scholastic standards and moral atmosphere. Buildings and equipment complete and in perfect order. Twice as much land as now occupied. Located in aristocratic resident district. Has been making a good profit regularly. Being offered simply because principal wishes to retire. If buyer shows first class fitness for developing school, local help in financing a part of the proposition could probably be secured. A very desirable buy for the right person. Address "M.," 1206 Borland Building, Chicago, Ill.

FOR THE HOME

DOMESTIC SCIENCE handbook free. Correspondence courses. American School Home Economics. Chicago.

HELP WANTED

Business Situations

INCREASE your earning power by learning to write advertisements. Facts sent free. Page-Davis Co., Dept. 32, Page Building, Chicago.

SALESMEN WANTED to sell trees and plants. Free outfit. Commission paid weekly. Write for terms. Perry Nurseries, Rochester, New York.

WANTED—A really experienced office nurse by a nose, throat, and ear specialist. Salary $100 a month. 5,682, Outlook.

WOMEN who wish to earn pin-money at home should write at once to the Pin-Money Publishing Co., of Bloomfield, New Jersey, enclosing stamp for reply.

WANTED, for literary and scientific work, a capable secretary. College education or equivalent; some knowledge French and German, stenography, scientific (biology-medicine) terms. Answer fully by letter, stating salary expected. Philadelphia, Pa. 5,723, Outlook.

A cultivated young lady wanted for a congenial position in a physician's household. Duties chiefly entertaining and shopping for invalids. Comfortable home, ample salary. Nurses, matrons, stenographers, and students of music need not apply. Unexceptionable references indispensable, and age must be stated. P. O. Box 2,924, Boston, Mass.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

MOTHER'S helper—nursery governess—German preferred, for two children, 2 and 4 years. References. Permanent position. $30. Avondale, Cincinnati, Ohio. 5,692, Outlook.

WANTED—A gentlewoman to asssist in care of three children, as member of family. 5,713, Outlook.

COOK and housekeeper. Good home, good wages. Small family; two helpers. S. R. Leonard, Kenwood, Madison Co., N. Y.

WANTED—Refined and well-educated gentlewoman to mother four children and manage their father's home in a suburb of New York City. Applications must give full information. 5,709, Outlook.

Teachers and Governesses

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools. Calls coming every day. Send for Bulletin. Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N. Y.

TEACHERS wanted: Men—metallurgy, $2,500–$3,000; college graduates with athletics. Men and women—many excellent vacancies in various lines. Write to-day. New Century Teachers' Bureau, 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

FOR housekeepers, matrons, governesses, mothers' helpers, etc., address Miss Richards, 244 Thayer St., Providence, R. I.

PACIFIC COAST? Certification, etc., explained. 20c. stamps. Boynton-Esterly Teachers' Agency, San Francisco, Los Angeles.

TEACHERS.—Good salaries and opportunities awaiting qualified teachers in all departments for colleges, normal and high schools in the progressive Southwest. Write at once, giving full information about yourself to Western Reference & Bond Ass'n, Dept. A, Kansas City, Mo.

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HELP WANTED

Teachers and Governesses

WANTED—A young woman for nursery governess for two little girls, 3 and 5 years old. One who speaks pure French fluently and who is fond of children. Protestant preferred; suburb of Philadelphia. Permanent position if satisfactory. A personal interview in New York necessary. 5,656, Outlook.

WANTED—Elocution teacher, $750, including home near New York; governesses; children's nurses; housekeepers, etc. The Hopkins' Educational Agency, 507 Fifth Ave.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Professional Situations

NURSE desires nervous patient. State salary. Nurse 358 W. 19th St., Manhattan.

DOMESTIC Science graduate, lunch room experience, wishes position in well-conducted tea room or club. West preferred. 5,720, Outlook.

Business Situations

SECRETARYSHIP (preferably in a school) or office position by young woman. Experienced stenographer, bookkeeper, and teacher. Good education. References. 5,702, Outlook.

YOUNG college girl desires summer position, preferably as secretary. German, French. 5,686, Outlook.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

SUMMER position as companion or secretary. References. 5,652, Outlook.

MATRON—In school for coming year. Experienced, capable, refined, good manager. Best references. Box 9, Canton, N. Y.

LADY highly recommends child's nurse for position of trust. Miss Mary Macdonald, 2,716 Decatur Ave., New York.

MIDDLE-aged lady desires position in refined Christian home as companion or supervising housekeeper. References exchanged. 5,704, Outlook.

CAPABLE lady, formerly teacher, taking indefinite vacation from position of heavy responsibility, desires lighter work. Housekeeper, secretary, tutor-companion; history, Latin, mathematics. Would like European travel. 5,687, Outlook.

GENTLEMAN, educated, refined, experienced, open for position as companion, secretary, to one nervously ill or otherwise indisposed. Will travel. Exceptional references. 5,693, Outlook.

WANTED, by young woman, position for summer as companion. References. 5,695, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Companions and Domestic Helpers

YOUNG woman, five years' teaching experience, wants position companion or governess for traveling, home, or abroad. Traveling experience in United States. References. 5,694, Outlook.

SECRETARY or companion to European traveler by refined young woman. 5,691, Outlook.

GENTLEWOMAN desires position as companion, chaperon, or nursery governess. 5,689, Outlook.

COMPANION or tutor for summer travel or seashore. Christian young woman, high school teacher. Experienced with sickness. Services given for expenses. 5,690, Outlook.

MATRON—School, institution; experienced dietitian. References as to ability. 5,727, Outlook.

TRAVELING companion position desired by graduate nurse to Europe. 5,728, Outlook.

ENGLISH lady desires position as companion to older girls. Musical. French, German, or would chaperon girls studying abroad. Experienced traveler. Highest references. 5,722, Outlook.

YOUNG lady desires position nursery governess or managing housekeeper. 5,724, Outlook.

WOMAN, superior qualifications, experienced, seeks engagement, companion, housekeeper. Speaks French, German. Will travel. 5,707, Outlook.

CHAPERONAGE by experienced gentlewoman. New York and vicinity. References. 5,708, Outlook.

TRAVELING companion position for summer desired by clergyman's daughter engaged as matron in blind school during year. References. 5,729, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED housekeeper highly endorsed for character and ability wishes position. 5,711, Outlook.

TRAVELING maid or companion. Useful linguist and packer. 5,717, Outlook.

PROTESTANT American woman, very executive, excellent housekeeper, accustomed to accounts, shopping, correspondence, wishes PERMANENT, responsible position in a REAL home. 5,732, Outlook.

Teachers and Governesses

WANTED, by a graduate of domestic science and of medicine, position to teach physiology and domestic science. 5,635, Outlook.

PARISIAN lady, experienced teacher, desires tutoring during summer. College preparation specialty. 5,637, Outlook.

WILLIAMS graduate, athlete, desires position as tutor summer months. 5,678, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Teachers and Governesses

MEDICAL student—college man—wants summer position. Tutor-companion invalid; boys' camp; any position with fair remuneration. 5,705, Outlook.

DOMESTIC science teacher desires summer position. 5,703, Outlook.

UNIVERSITY graduate, experienced as teacher, wishes summer work as tutor in camp or as private secretary. 5,697, Outlook.

ENGLISH, history instructor. Athletic coach, excellent disciplinarian. No tobacco. Experienced. 5,698, Outlook.

WELLESLEY graduate, experienced teacher, desires summer position as tutor, specialty Latin. Address 5,688, Outlook.

FRENCH lady would give instruction for home in the country. 5,684, Outlook.

POSITION desired in private family during summer to teach outdoor games, dancing, corrective exercises, by young lady teaching physical training in private school. 5,730. Outlook.

SOUTHERN GENTLEWOMAN, Teachers College senior, would go to Europe or mountains as governess or tutor. 5,731, Outlook.

COLLEGE student wishes position as tutor for summer, city or country. 5,710, Outlook.

NURSERY governess, Englishwoman, desires permanent position to children from three years. Cheerful disposition; clever with children. Excellent American testimonials. 5,714, Outlook.

COLLEGE man desires position as tutor to young man traveling. Has lived abroad. Now instructor in private school. 5,721, Outlook.

MISCELLANEOUS

KATHARINE McDowell Rice's original plays and entertainments. Address Mrs. R. M. Ely, Cummington, Mass.

WANTED—Pupils to enter Training School for Nurses. New York Infirmary for Women and Children, 321 E. 15th St., New York City.

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GRADUATE from recognized training-school would like care of two little children for summer in her own cottage in beautiful, healthful spot in mountains. Good care, affection. References exchanged. 5,725, Outlook.

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